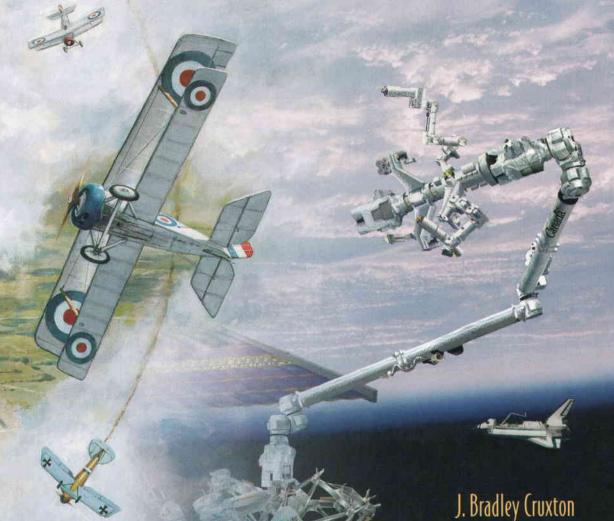
OXFORD CANADIAN HISTORY

SPOTLIGHT CANADA FOURTH EDITION



W. Douglas Wilson

OXFORD

70 Wynford Drive, Don Mills, Ontario M3C 1J9

www.oupcan.com

Oxford University Press is a department of the University of Oxford.

It furthers the University's objective of excellence in research, scholarship, and education by publishing worldwide in

Oxford New York

Athens Auckland Bangkok Bogotá Buenos Aires Calcutta Cape Town Chennai Dar es Salaam Delhi Florence Hong Kong Istanbul Karachi Kuala Lumpur Madrid Melbourne Mexico City Mumbai Nairobi Paris São Paulo Singapore Taipei Tokyo Toronto Warsaw

with associated companies in Berlin Ibadan

Oxford is a trade mark of Oxford University Press in the UK and in certain other countries

Published in Canada by Oxford University Press

Copyright © Oxford University Press Canada 2000

The moral rights of the author have been asserted

Database right Oxford University Press (maker)

First published 2000

All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system, or transmitted in any form or by any means, without the prior permission in writing of Oxford University Press, or as expressly permitted by

law, or under terms agreed with the appropriate reprographics rights organization. Enquiries concerning reproduction outside the scope of the above should be sent to the Rights Department, Oxford University Press, at the address above.

You must not circulate this book in any other binding or cover and you must impose this same condition on any acquirer.

Canadian Cataloguing in Publication Data

Cruxton, J. Bradley
Spotlight Canada 4th ed.
Includes index.
ISBN 0-19-541500-0
1. Canada – History – 20th century.
I. Wilson, W. Douglas,
II. Title.

FC600.C78 2000 971.06 C99-932601-5 F1026.C3 2000

Printed and bound in Canada This book is printed on permanent (acid-free) paper $\widehat{\otimes}$

1 2 3 4 5-04 03 02 01 00

Cover and Text Design: Brett J. Miller

Page composition and graphics: VISUTronX

Illustrations: page 1 David Craig; pages 98 and 234 Paul Sneath, free&Creative; page 396 Christine Alexiou

For Dianne and Mary for your encouragement and constant support.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors acknowledge a long-standing and stimulating relationship with the editorial and production staff of Oxford University Press (Canada). Our thanks to Susan Froud, Managing Director, International Division; Joanna Gertler, President, Oxford Canada, MaryLynne Meschino, Education Director; Loralee Case, Managing Editor; Vince Morgan, Production Manager; and Brett Miller, Design Manager.

In particular, we express our gratitude to our editors Monica Schwalbe and Edward O'Connor for their creative advice, editorial support, and tireless efforts. Donald Quinlan and Peter Lawley, fellow teachers, also provided assistance and ideas in developing the fourth edition. Thanks also to Tracey MacDonald for her excellent research, and to Tiina Randoja for her editorial contribution.



Left cover image:

Painting by Don Connolly of Canadian World War I ace Billy Bishop in a typical engagement with German Albatros "scouts" during the Spring of 1917. Bishop was flying a Nieuport 17 biplane with #60 Squadron, Royal Flying Corps.

Connolly is a well known Canadian aviation artist of

long standing with many works in major aviation museums and numerous private collections. He is a founder and past President of the Canadian Aviation Artists Association and recipient of many awards in his field.



Right cover image:

Mobile Servicing System— Canada's contribution to the International Space Station (ISS)—which will be used to assemble and maintain the Station during the early stages of assembly and throughout its lifetime. Image courtesy Canadian Space Agency ©1999. Canadian Space Agency web site: http://www.space.gc.ca



	Setting the Scene: The Road to the Twentieth Century	1			
Unit 1	The Twentieth Century Dawns, 1900-1913				
	Unit Overview and Planner	11			
	1 Canada at the Turn of the Century	14			
	Developing Skills: Note-Making	30			
	2 Canada and the World	38			
	Developing Skills: Interpreting Political Cartoons	49			
	Developing Skills: Using Primary & Secondary Sources	56			
Unit 2	Canada and World War I, 1914-1919				
	Unit Overview and Planner	61			
	3 War Breaks Out!	64			
	Developing Skills: Mind Mapping Causes	70			
	Developing Skills: Recognizing and Understanding Bias	77			
	4 Canadians in Battle	82			
	Developing Skills: Using Computer-Stored Information	0.0			
	for Research	86			
	Developing Skills: Preparing a Research Report	101			
	5 War on the Home Front	107 124			
	Developing Skills: Interpreting and Comparing Maps	124			
Unit 3	The Roaring Twenties and Dirty Thirties				
	Unit Overview and Planner	131			
	6 Times of Turmoil	134			
	Developing Skills: Decision-Making	154			
	7 The Roaring Twenties	160			
	Developing Skills: Creating Multi-Media Presentations	176			
	8 The Dirty Thirties	179			
	Developing Skills: Using Simulation Games	183			
	Developing Skills: Interpreting Graphs in History	203			
Unit 4	Canada and World War II, 1939-1945				
	Unit Overview and Planner	209			
	9 On the Eve of War	212			
	Developing Skills: Using Maps as Visual Organizers	224			
	10 Canadians at War	231			
	Developing Skills: Debating	251			
	11 The War at Home	255			
	Developing Skills: Analyzing Bias in Propaganda	264			

Unit 5	Canada in the Post-War B	Era, 194	l6- 19 69		
	Unit Overview and Plan	ner		277	
	12 Canada on the World	Stage		280	
	Developing Skills: Makin	- 0	resentations	300	
	13 Canada Comes of Age	_		306	
	Developing Skills: Intervi			329	
	14 Prosperity, Protest, ar	_	Politics	334	
	Developing Skills: Interpr			345	
Unit 6	Years of Change, 1970-19				
	Unit Overview and Plan			365	
15 Canada's Changing Identity Developing Skills: Formulating a Thes				368	
				378	
16 New Directions in the Economy and Society				396	
	Developing Skills: Writing		arch Essay	408	
	17 Canada in the Global			417	
	Developing Skills: Makin	g Predicti	ions Based on Evidence	421	
Unit 7	Toward the New Millenni	um. 198	3-2000		
	Unit 7 Toward the New Millennium, 1983-2000 Unit Overview and Planner			435	
18 A Nation of Diversity and Cl			nge	438	
			O .	448	
	Developing Skills: Keeping Up With the News 19 Economic, Social, and Political Trends				
	Developing Skills: Sampl			466 480	
	20 Canada and Globaliza	_	o opinion	497	
	Developing Skills: Analyz		rrent Issue	505	
	Index			524	
	Photo Credits			531	
	Text Sources			533	
Develo	ping Skills Contents (listed)	alphabetic	cally)		
				401	— 1
	ng a Current Issue	505 264	Making Predictions Based on E		
	ng Bias in Propaganda	264	Mind Mapping Causes	70	
	g Multi-Media Presentations	176	Note-Making	30	
Debatin	O .	251	Preparing a Research Report	101	
Decision-Making		154	Recognizing and Understandin	0	
Formulating a Thesis		378	Sampling Public Opinion	480)
Interpreting and Comparing Maps Interpreting Data in Tables		124 345	Using Computer-Stored Informa Research		3
•	ting Graphs in History	203	Using Maps as Visual Organizer	86 s 224	
	ting Political Cartoons	49	Using Primary & Secondary So		
Intervie		329	Using Simulation Games	urces 50 183	
	g Up with the News	329 448	Writing a Research Essay	408	
	Oral Presentations	300	whiling a Nescarch Essay	400	ر
Making	orar i resentations	500			

The Road to the Twentieth Century

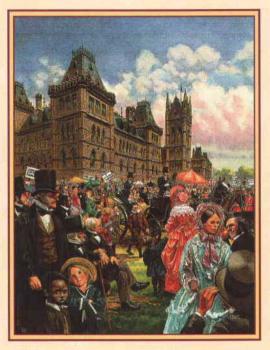
*

Confederation Day

On July 1, 1867 fireworks lit up the skies and guns roared a salute from Sarnia in the west to Halifax in the east. It was the day that Canada became a nation. Four British colonies-Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick—joined to form the new Dominion of Canada. On the crowded streets of Ottawa, people cheered as John A. Macdonald was sworn in as Canada's first prime minister. George Brown, another

prominent politician, announced:

"With the first dawn of this summer morning, we hail the birthday of a new nation. A united British America [Canada] takes its place among the nations of the world."



Today, it is hard to imagine Canada as a country with only four provinces and a population of just 3 million. Canada in 1867 was certainly much smaller than it is today. In just 33 years from 1867 to the turn of the twentieth century, however, the country grew at an astonishing pace. New provinces and territories were added, and the population increased to 5.3 million.

In those years between 1867 and 1900,

Canada was taking the first steps toward forging its own identity. The characteristics that began to define Canada by 1900 were ones that would continue to shape the country's identity throughout the twentieth century.

- 1. Brainstorm characteristics that you think might define a country's identity.
- 2. What characteristics do you think defined Canada in 1867?

First Peoples, Early Settlements

Aboriginal peoples were the first inhabitants of what we call Canada today. In the 1860s, the population was estimated at about 100 000 spread across the continent. They lived as independent nations with their own governments, laws, traditions, and distinct cultures. The French arrived on the shores of the East Coast in the early 1600s and established the first French settlements. In 1759, the British defeated the French at the Battle of the Plains of Abra-

ham and established the colonies and territories of British North America.

What contacts did the North American colonies have with one another in the 1860s? They had stronger ties to Britain and even the United States than they did to each other. Transportation was mainly by water over seas, rivers, and canals. Railways were beginning to be built, but travel over land was mainly by horse and cart over dirt roads. Over 82 per cent of the people in the colonies lived on farms or in small villages. Most people did not venture very far from their homes.



The Push to Nationhood

What brought the colonies together? In the 1860s, a number of issues were brewing that eventually led to the birth of Canada.

1. The Threat of American Takeover

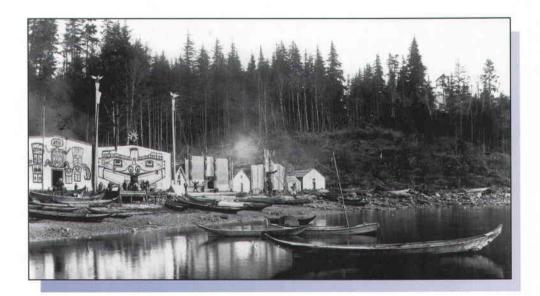
The threat of an American takeover was very real. During the American Civil War between the Northern and Southern states. Britain appeared to support the Southern states by supplying them with warships. When the North won the war in 1865, the British North American colonies worried that the Northern armies might take revenge on Britain by attacking them. American politicians and newspapers were also talking about Manifest Destiny — the idea that it was natural the United States would one day control all of North America. In 1867, the United States bought Alaska from Russia. British Columbia was hemmed in to the north and south by the United States. Would the United States take over the vast open plains east of British Columbia next?

2. Changing British Attitudes

The colonies had been seen as a source of wealth and power for Britain, but by the 1860s some people in Britain felt the colonies were too big a drain on the home country's finances. Suddenly, the colonies could no longer be sure that Britain would defend them in case of attack from the United States. The colonies were vulnerable. If they united, they could pool their resources and better defend themselves.

3. The Need for New Trade Links

Britain was also less willing to provide the colonies with special trading privileges. Before 1846, the colonies could ship wheat and flour to Britain at a very low tax. In 1846, that trade preference ended when Britain announced free trade. The British North American colonies then worked out a reciprocity (free trade) agreement with the United States in 1854. Certain goods could pass over their borders tax-free, but the US ended the agreement in 1865. The colonies began to realize that they had to develop better trade links among themselves.



Aboriginal peoples, like these Kwakwaka'waku on the West Coast were the first inhabitants of what we call Canada today.

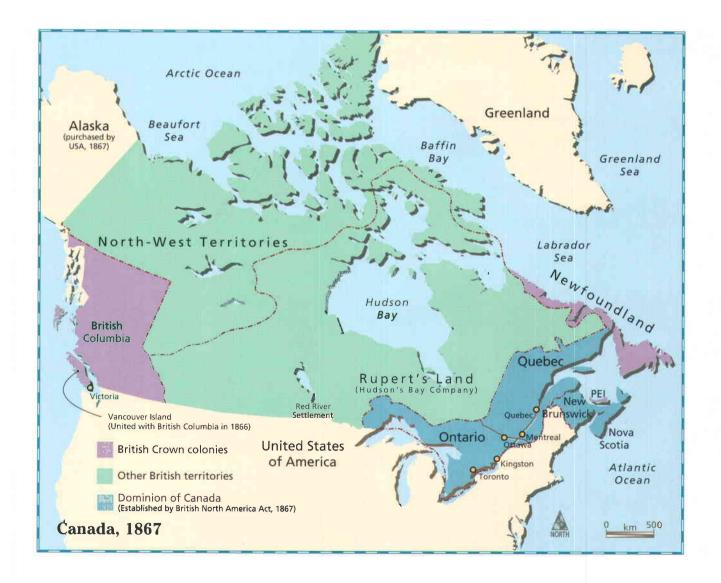
4. The Need for Railways

If there was going to be trade among the colonies, there had to be rail links. A railway connection between the Atlantic colonies and Canada was also essential for defence. If the colonies were attacked by the United States, British troops could be rushed from Halifax. But in winter, the St. Lawrence River was frozen solid and the only way troops could reach Canada would be by rail. A railway building boom began, but Britain was reluctant to

keep sending finances for the railways. The individual colonies did not have the resources to build the lines of steel themselves. If the colonies united, expenses could be shared.

Confederation 1867

Canada became a nation in 1867 when Britain passed the British North America Act, today known as the Constitution Act 1867. What characteristics defined Canada in 1867?



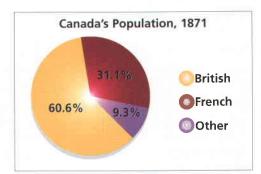
The Land and Economy

Canada in 1867 included four provinces: Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Ontario, and Quebec. Ontario and Quebec were much smaller than they are today. The Fathers of Confederation hoped to have other colonies join the country to fulfill the dream of a nation stretching "from sea to sea."

The majority of people in the country were farmers, fishers, or merchants. Economically, there were strong ties to Britain. Canada was seen as a source of wealth and economic power for the home country. Vast quantities of furs, fish, timber, grain, and flour made their way on ships across the Atlantic to the tables of Britain. While some industries were developing in Canada, most manufactured goods from clothing to dishes came from Britain or the United States. Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, however, had a lively trade with the east coast of the United States and the West Indies.

The People

The majority of people in Canada were of British (English, Scottish, Irish, or Welsh) heritage and had come from Britain or the



United States. Since Canada was still part of the British Empire, Canadians were subjects of the British Crown and swore allegiance to Queen Victoria. They flew the British flag and sang "God Save the Queen" at ceremonies and special events. It was not unusual to see British soldiers on the streets and in garrisons throughout the colonies.

French Canadians had been in Quebec and the Maritimes since the 1600s. In 1867, they were also British subjects. They had kept their language, religion, system of laws, and culture, but the fact that they had been "conquered" by the British in 1759 was still a bitter pill for many to swallow. They felt the constant pressure of the

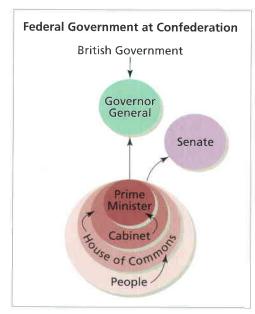
Canada's first census (population count) was taken in 1871. Ninety-two per cent of the population was of either British or French origin. The census did not include Aboriginal peoples living in the country. Why?



Montreal in the 1860s was the largest city in Canada and was bustling with life. British majority around them threatening their identity.

Aboriginal peoples were also considered by the government to be British subjects, though they saw themselves as independent, self-governing nations. They were placed under the authority of the federal government at Confederation. A department of Indian Affairs was created to manage the way they would live. The policy of the government was for assimilation. That is, the government wanted to gradually absorb Aboriginal peoples into Canadian (mainly British) culture. The government made treaties to gain Aboriginal lands and moved many Aboriginal peoples onto reserves. Children were sent to special residential schools where they were not allowed to speak their languages or follow their cultural traditions.

Other ethnic groups made up 9.3 per cent of the population in 1871. They included Blacks (primarily in Nova Scotia and Ontario), Germans, Ukrainians, Scandinavians, Chinese, Italians, and others. There were already a number of different ethnocultural and racial groups in Canada, though their numbers were small.



At Confederation, the real power for governing the country and making laws went to the prime minister and cabinet, who represented the party with the majority in the elected House of Commons.

The Government

Canada's government was based on features from both the British and American systems. Following the American model, Canada had a federal system. Provincial governments looked after local affairs and a central government looked after affairs affecting the whole country. But in Canada, the federal government was meant to be more powerful than the provincial governments. In the American government, the states had wider powers than the central government.

Following the British model, Canada had a parliamentary system with a House of Commons made up of representatives elected by the people. The Queen of England was still the head of government and she appointed a Governor General to represent her in Canada, but both had to follow the wishes of the majority in the House of Commons. Like Britain, Canada's government also had an "upper house" called the Senate. The name was taken from the American system. Its main function was to double check all laws passed by the House of Commons.

The new nation of Canada in 1867 was not declaring independence from Britain. Government in Britain still had the final say on any changes to Canada's constitution (the rules, practices, and laws for how a country should be governed) and its foreign relations. Canada's constitution, however, gave Canadians more direct control over their own affairs. Canada was also beginning to define itself as different from both Britain and the United States.

The Roots of Regionalism

On Confederation Day people celebrated, but not everyone was rejoicing. In Nova Scotia, anti-Confederationists burned a likeness of Premier Charles Tupper sideby-side with a rat. In New Brunswick, a newspaper headline read: "Died – at her

residence in the city of Fredericton, The Province of New Brunswick, in the 83rd year of her age." In Quebec, French Canadians wondered if they would have an equal say in government and could maintain their distinct identity in a country dominated by English-speaking people. Aboriginal peoples were not consulted about their role in the new country.

Some colonies rejected Confederation outright. Newfoundland and Prince Edward Island believed they would have little real representation in the federal government. The government in the new capital of Ottawa was too far removed to understand their concerns. The colonies had developed their own strong identities. Even in 1867, the roots of strong provincial and regional differences were well established in Canada. Canada has always faced the challenge of uniting regions that have very different needs, geographies, peoples, and economies,

Emerging Identity 1867 - 1900

In 1867, Canada was a nation of four provinces in the East. By 1900, the country stretched across the continent from Nova Scotia in the east to British Columbia in the west and north to the Arctic Ocean. The country was also establishing closer transportation and communication ties. The transcontinental Canadian Pacific Railway was completed in 1885 and the telephone was invented in 1876. Social and economic developments were occurring, and Canada saw the first stirrings of a cultural identity. The National Gallery, for example, was founded in 1880. The timeline on the following pages (pp. 8–9) highlights some of these major developments in Canada's growth to 1900.

Towards the Twentieth Century

So as Canada approached the twentieth century, the country's land area, population, and economy had grown considerably. The world was beginning to take notice of this new country called Canada. By 1900, Canada was also beginning to look outward to its place in the world.

As you follow the story of Canada through the twentieth century in this book, you will see the following key topics highlighted throughout. Take a minute to think about how each of these topics is reflected in what you have read about Canada's development from 1867 to 1900. What aspects do you think will change or remain the same in the early twentieth century? Then read on and find out.



Canadian Identity



External Forces Shaping Canada's Policies



French-English Relations



War, Peace, and Security



Population Patterns



Impact of Science and Technology



Canada's International Status and Foreign Policy



Social and Political Movements



Contributions of Individuals



The Economy



The Changing Role of Government

A GROWING NATION 1867 - 1900

	1867 - 1879
Political Changes	1869 - 1870 Red River Resistance; Louis Riel and the Métis fight for land and political rights, and the right to enter Confederation as a province
	As a result of the Red River Resistance, Manitoba becomes a province of Canada
	British Columbia joins Canada and is promised a railway link with the East
	1873 Prince Edward Island joins Canada
	North-West Mounted Police are created to police the West
Economic and	1869 First Eaton's department store opens in Toronto
Technological Changes	Elijah McCoy invents the lubricating cup used on trains and in factories
	Alexander Graham Bell completes first long-distance telephone call from Brantford to Paris, Ontario
	1876 First new, hardy Red Fife wheat is exported from Manitoba
	John A. Macdonald introduces his National Policy to promote economic growth in Canada
Social and Cultural	1871-1921 Canada signs treaties with Aboriginal nations in the West; many are moved onto reserves
Changes	1872 Trade Union Bill makes labour unions legal
	Women's Christian Temperance Union (WCTU) is founded to lobby against alcohol abuse and to push for women's rights, including the right to vote
	First organized hockey league game is played in Victoria Rink, Montreal
	1876 Canadian government passes the Indian Act that makes Aboriginal peoples "wards of the state" and sets out rules by which they should live

1880 - 1889 Britain grants Arctic Islands to Canada 1885 North-West Rebellion led by Louis Riel is crushed; Riel is hanged

1890 - 1900

1890 Manitoba Schools Act ends tax support for French-Catholic school system

1898 Yukon becomes a territory of Canada



1882 Horse-drawn streetcar debuts in Winnipeg

1885 Canadian Pacific Railroad across Canada is completed largely through the work of immigrant labourers including thousands of Chinese; postal services expand westward with railway



1888 Liberals first propose unrestricted free trade with United States

1889 Buffalo on the western plains are basically extinct

Massey Manufacturing Company wins world recognition for efficiency of its farm machinery

Toronto's street railway converts to electric power



Niagara Falls hydroelectric plant opens 1896

Dr. Henri Casgrain becomes first known Canadian to drive a motorcar - top speed 29 km/h

Gold rush attracts thousands to the Klondike region of the Yukon

1880 National Gallery is established

1882 Royal Society of Canada is founded to promote research and learning in Canada

1884 First women students are admitted to University of Toronto



1885 Sun Dance of Aboriginal peoples is banned by the federal government as part of its policy to assimilate Aboriginal nations

1889 Report of Royal Commission on Relations of Labour and Capital points out problems of unsafe working conditions, low wages, child labour, etc.

James Naismith of Edmonton develops game of basketball

Mohawk poet Pauline Johnson 1892 begins public readings of her poetry

Labour Day is celebrated as a holiday

Canada introduces an "open door" policy to immigrants

First Women's Institute is founded by Adelaide Hoodless to teach women about nutrition, child care, and domestic science

1900 Canada has grown to a nation of 5.3 million people







THE TWENTIETH CENTURY DAWNS

1900-1913

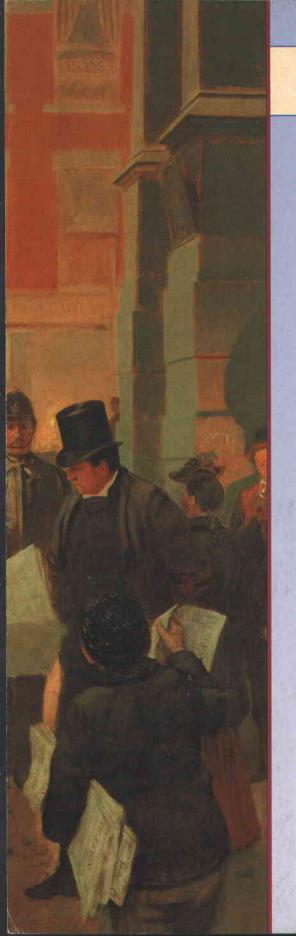
he years 1900 to 1913 were a period of remarkable growth and change for Canada. There were major advances in technology. Bicycles and automobiles were replacing horses and carriages as a means of getting around. The telephone and wireless radio changed communications. Suddenly the world seemed much smaller.

With the discovery of electricity, industries grew at an astonishing pace. People flocked to factories in cities and towns looking for jobs and new opportunities. Canada was becoming more urban. By 1913 over 2 million new immigrants had also come to Canada. It was the greatest wave of immigration in Canada's history and changed the face of society.

In 1901, there were great inequalities between rich and poor, men and women, workers and their bosses. The rights of Aboriginal peoples were ignored. People in Black and Asian communities faced discrimination. New immigrants also found themselves treated differently from others in society. Movements for social change, however, were gaining momentum.

Canada was also beginning to take its first steps onto the world stage and to assert its independence. Both internal and external forces were shaping Canada's identity in the early years of the new century.

- 1. The painting on these pages is called *Lights of a City Street* (1892) by F. M. Bell-Smith. Look closely at the people in the scene. Who are they? What are they doing? What does this painting tell you about everyday life in the city around the turn of the century?
- 2. What evidence of technology can you see?
- 3. Do you think this painting represents everyday life for all people in Canada just before the turn of the century? Why or why not?





Strands & Topics

Communities: Local, National, and Global



Canadian Identity

- Canadian art and literature blossoms (e.g., works of L. M. Montgomery, Pauline Johnson, Ozias Leduc, etc.)
- new immigrants make contributions to the country's growth
- Alberta and Saskatchewan become provinces 1905; boundaries of Manitoba, Ontario, and Quebec are extended 1912

External Forces Shaping Canada's Policies

- Alaska Boundary Dispute takes place with Americans 1903
- British imperialism leads to Naval crisis 1909
- Reciprocity with United States is an issue in 1911 federal election
- American movies, automobiles come into Canada



French-English Relations

- imperialists vs anti-imperialists
- rise of French-Canadian nationalism
- differences over Naval Service Bill and participation in Boer War
- Franco-Manitobans and Franco-Ontarians struggle for recognition



War, Peace, and Security

- Canada sends troops to Boer War in South Africa 1899-1902
- Canadian navy is established

Change and Continuity



Population Patterns

- immigration boom
- urbanization
- settlement of western Canada



Impact of Science and Technology

- · bicycles, automobiles, aircraft, telephone, wireless radio, silent movies are developed
- · new wheat strains are invented



(New Canada's International Status and Foreign Policy

- · International Joint Commission is established to settle disputes with US 1909
- Canada gains some autonomy from Britain by establishing its own navy and sending only volunteers to Boer War

Citizenship and Heritage



Social and Political **Movements**

- · women's suffrage movement begins
- · movements for social reform (better education, health care, wages, working conditions, etc.) gain momentum
- workers organize unions and strikes
- · immigrants establish social support groups
- Aboriginal population is hard hit by disease, poverty, and loss of traditional lifestyles



Contributions of Individuals

- · writers such as L. M. Montgomery, Pauline Johnson, and Stephen Leacock publish important works
- · artists such as Homer Watson and Ozias Leduc focus on Canadian themes
- Tom Longboat and James Naismith contribute to development of Canadian sports

- · Henri Bourassa and Wilfrid Laurier make major political contributions
- · Charles Saunders, Samuel McLaughlin, and Alexander Graham Bell are among major inventors and entrepreneurs

Social, Economic, and **Political Structures**



The Economy

- reciprocity (free trade) with United States is defeated
- country experiences resource and industrial development; growth of giant corporations
- inequalities occur in economic development of Canada's regions
- trade increases among nations; global economy is emerging



The Changing Role of Government

- · Laurier makes compromises to appease French and English concerns
- pressure groups make strides toward social and political change

Methods of Historical Inquiry



Skill Development

- note-making
- · interpreting political cartoons
- using primary and secondary sources

Activities

• pp. 35-37, 57-59

Expectations

By the end of this unit. you will be able to:

- · describe life in Canada at the turn of the twentieth century
- explain the effects of major developments in technology
- identify major groups that immigrated to Canada and their contributions
- · evaluate changes brought about by urbanization
- · assess the effectiveness of movements for social reform
- · examine the role of government and political figures such as Wilfrid Laurier
- analyze the crises in Canada's relations with Britain and the United States
- explain the growth of Quebec nationalism and differences between English and French Canadians over issues such as imperialism
- · evaluate Canada's policies in war, peace, and security from 1900 to 1913
- assess Canada's economic development to 1913
- appreciate the contributions of individuals to Canada's growth and identity
- apply good note-making skills
- · effectively analyze and interpret political cartoons
- use primary and secondary sources effectively



Canada at the Turn of the Century

A New Century

At midnight church bells started to peal. Bonfires were lit and cannons roared a salute to the twentieth century. Across Canada citizens enthusiastically celebrated the New Year. While some joined in fancy champagne suppers, others enjoyed simple family gatherings. Many people telephoned or sent telegrams to friends wishing them "Happy New Century."

The year 1901 marked the beginning of an exciting new era for Canada. The world had gone through an economic depression in the 1890s and Canada had felt the pinch. But now that was over. This country of 5.3 million people was flushed with prosperity.

Canada was only 33 years old, but in the short time since Confederation it had grown tremen-

dously. In 1867, it had been a country of just four provinces in the East. By 1900, Canada stretched across the continent from Nova Scotia in the East to British Columbia in the West and north to the Arctic Ocean. Industries were growing in cities and towns,



and farmland in the West was waiting to be cultivated.

It was said that the nineteenth century had belonged to the United States. The United States had become a powerful nation and a land of opportunity for new immigrants from

around the world. In 1904, Prime Minister Wilfrid Laurier boldly stated that the twentieth century would belong to Canada. Many Canadians believed he was right. Canadians entered the twentieth century with a sense of optimism and confidence.

- 1. a) Examine the poster. What images does it present?
 - b) How does it reflect the feelings of optimism in Canada at the beginning of the twentieth century? Do you think everyone shared in this optimism? Why or why not?
- 2. Why do you think Laurier believed that the twentieth century would belong to Canada?





Winds of Change

In the early 1900s, cities such as Montreal, Hamilton, Toronto, Winnipeg, and Vancouver were becoming bustling centres. In the evenings when the workday was done, business people and workers rode home on their bicycles or rushed to catch the electric tram. Families walked home from a day's shopping or an outing in another part of the city. Newsboys on street corners hawked papers with the latest news of the day. Impressive store fronts lined the streets and telephone wires hovered on tall poles along the sidewalks. At dusk, electric streetlights lit the way for pedestrians and automobiles.

This was only one side of life in Canada at the turn of the century, however. For most people, life still centred around the farm and village. Over 60 per cent of Canada's population in 1901 was rural. Across the country, life was a mix of old and new.

A Look Across the Country

In the Maritimes, farmers still hauled wood from the bush with oxen. Families carded wool from their own sheep for yarn to make clothes. A few towns, such as Sydney, were industrial centres thriving on coal and steel. Times were changing. Maritimers looked less and less to Britain, the United States, and the West Indies-their old trading partners across the seas. Now they began to make new connections inland with the rest of Canada. But for Maritimers. the future seemed to lie in the West and not in their home provinces. Many packed their belongings, jumped onto trains, and took up homesteads on the booming Prairies.

Montreal at the turn of the twentieth century was a great world port filled with warehouses and noisy taverns. Church steeples and factory chimneys dominated the skyline. Forty millionaires were said to live on one stretch of Sherbrooke Street known as the "Golden Mile." But rural Quebec had not changed much for almost a century. Families still lived on strip farms along the rivers and kept their traditional habitant customs and lifestyle.

In Winnipeg, new wooden homes seemed to be rising every week. But farther west, the newest immigrants still lived in sod huts. Settlers began moving into the Prairies so rapidly, however, that by 1905



Netsurfer

For more information on early twentieth century technology, visit Canada's National Museum of Science and Technology at www.science-tech.nmstc.ca. the federal government created two new provinces, Saskatchewan and Alberta. Treaties were signed with Aboriginal peoples and many were moved onto reserves. It became increasingly difficult for them to follow their traditional ways of life.

In Ontario and Quebec, new industries and business enterprises were beginning to develop. Canada's major banks established a firm foothold and provided funds for businesses and western development. Workers were finding new jobs in factories that turned out manufactured goods. New railways were being built and the ribbons of steel distributed goods manufactured in the East across the country.

To the people in the East, British Columbia in 1901 was a land apart. It was

separated from the rest of Canada by high mountains. Only the transcontinental railroad provided a link. It was a province of isolated ranches, fruit farms, mining camps, and cannery towns. Vancouver was a growing city, hustling after business. It was quickly becoming a major port for exporting prairie wheat and British Columbia coal. The capital of Victoria, on the other hand, was said to be "more English than England."



New Technologies

As Canadians moved further into the first decade of the new century, life progressively became more "modern." The early years of the twentieth century were a great

A painting by Canadian artist Homer Watson titled Log-cutting in the Woods, 1894.



- 1. Contrast this painting with the one on pages 10-11 at the beginning of this unit.
- 2. What impression does this painting give of rural life in the early twentieth century?

age of science and technology around the world. The technological changes had an effect on almost every aspect of life in Canada.

From Horses to Wheels

In 1900, horses still played an important role in many peoples' lives. When a baby was born, a horse-drawn carriage brought the doctor to the house. At the end of a person's life, the undertaker's sleek black horses pulled the hearse to the cemetery. Farmers used horses to pull their ploughs and town dwellers kept them for transport. Every bakery, dairy, and coal company had to have horses to pull its delivery wagons. Horse-drawn streetcars were also still in use in many Canadian towns and cities.

New means of transportation were coming on the scene, however. The bicycle was one of the most exciting new inventions at the turn of the century. For people who were used to getting around with horses and carriages, the bicycle brought a new sense of freedom and mobility. After all, horses had to be fed and housed. Bicycles didn't, and they were cheaper to buy. By the turn of the century, one in every 12 persons owned a "wheel."

The bicycle had a major impact on society. It not only made transportation easier, but had an effect on work, leisure, and fashions. People could live farther from their place of work and get to their jobs more easily. On the job, mail carriers, police officers, delivery boys, ministers, and many others could use bicycles to get around. Schools were started where people could learn the fine points of riding. Cycling clubs organized tours, rallies, and races. Many women became cycling enthusiasts. Cycling helped to change women's fashions. Now women could wear less restrictive and more sensible clothing, such as divided skirts.



The bicycle also helped to break down social barriers. Here was a vehicle the poor as well as the rich could afford. On any given day, a factory worker or domestic servant might be riding to work beside his or her bank manager.

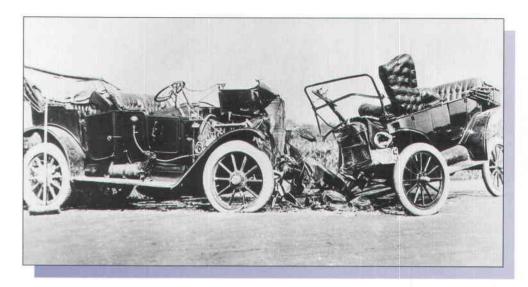
Bicycles were used for transportation and sometimes romantic picnics in the country.

Automobiles

By 1900, the automobile was just being introduced. Henry Ford had founded the Detroit Automobile Company in 1899, nine years after Daimler started his company in Germany. King Edward VII was an enthusiastic supporter of "horseless carriages" and helped to make them popular. In Ontario, the first motorist was John Moodie of Hamilton, who imported a \$1000 Winton from the United States in 1898.

By 1908, an Oshawa carriage-maker, Sam McLaughlin, was producing automobiles in Canada. McLaughlin had signed a contract with the Buick Motor Company in the United States. McLaughlin built the body of the cars and Buick provided the engines. The Oshawa firm in 1908 produced only 200 automobiles, but it was the beginning of the mass production of cars in Canada. The automobile industry would become one of the foundations of manufacturing in Canada.

A collision in Vancouver. Automobiles were beginning to complicate traffic on city streets.



Until the 1920s, the automobile was considered a rich person's toy. But with the development of the assembly line, the prices of cars dropped and moved to within the grasp of many more people. Certainly no one at the turn of the century could predict the problems of accidents, parking, and congestion that the new invention would bring.

Flight!

In 1903 the American brothers, Orville and Wilbur Wright, successfully flew the first airplane. That flight, on the beach of Kitty Hawk, North Carolina, lasted just 12 seconds. But the Wright brothers proved that

a machine heavier than air could fly. The Air Age had begun.

Meanwhile in Canada, Alexander Graham Bell, the inventor of the telephone, also worked on the problem of flight. At Baddeck, Nova Scotia, he formed a group known as the **Aerial Experiment Association (AEA)**. In 1908 Casey Baldwin, a member of the AEA, flew a plane called the *Red Wing*. It travelled a distance of 97 m! By the summer of 1909, Douglas McCurdy was making flights of 32 km over the water at Baddeck in the *Silver Dart*. The *Silver Dart* was the finest and most easily flown aircraft of its day.

First flight of the Silver Dart at Baddeck, Nova Scotia, 1909.



Arts Talk





Anne of Green Gables Published June 1908

A delightful new novel by a Prince Edward Island writer, Lucy Maud Montgomery, has just been published. The novel is Anne of Green Gables. It is the enchanting story of Anne Shirley, a lively and talkative red-haired orphan. By mistake, Anne is sent to live with the Cuthbert family who have requested a boy to help on their farm. The adventures that follow are hilarious and heartwarming. The novelist captures the spirit of growing up in Prince Edward Island in Victorian times. Lucy Maud Montgomery's novel is so successful that she is already working on the sequel, Anne of Avonlea.



Sunshine Sketches of a Little Town Hailed 1912

Stephen Leacock is the funniest man in Canada. His new book, Sunshine Sketches of a Little Town, is a wonderful satire of life in a small Ontario town. The town is called Mariposa. Many people believe it is inspired by Leacock's home town of Orillia, Ontario. Leacock's satire makes fun of characters and small town life in a good-natured way. The people described in Leacock's story are just like people all of us know. Leacock allows us to laugh at ourselves and our everyday follies.

1. Lucy Maud Montgomery and Stephen Leacock are only two of many writers who published important novels and poems at the turn of the century in Canada. Find out more about one of the following. Write a short review like those above about one of their works or create a history card with a picture and short bio-

graphy of the writer. You could also research writers not in this list.



Poet Pauline Johnson (Tekahionwake)

Duncan Campbell Scott

Pauline Johnson Frederick Philip Grove Louis Hémon Charles G. D. Roberts

Robert Service Bliss Carman Isabella Valancy Crawford Archibald Lampman Phillipe-Joseph Aubert de Gaspé

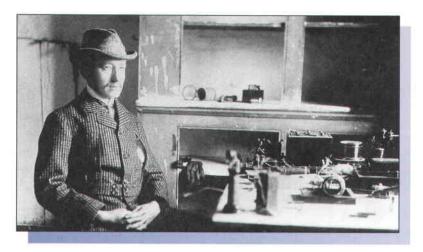
2. Every summer, the Stephen Leacock Medal for Humour is given to a Canadian writer for the most humorous book of the year. Find out who the most recent winner is and present a short report about the writer.

It would be a long time before large airplanes would be carrying passengers overseas, but McCurdy and Baldwin tried hard to convince the Canadian government of the airplane's military value. However, when the Silver Dart crash-landed during the flight trials, military officials rejected the idea of using airplanes in warfare. Ironically, 30 years later, the Canadian

government asked McCurdy to become director of government aircraft production during World War II.

Instant Communications

Around the turn of the century, more people were getting telephones. Businesses thrived as people ordered goods from stores by phone. Friends and families



Marconi waits for the first transatlantic radio message from England at Signal Hill in St. John's, Newfoundland.

could pick up the telephone and instantly share news or the latest gossip. Party lines, where more than one household shared a line, were common. All calls had to be channelled through the telephone exchange where operators sitting at boards connected the callers. The telephone greatly improved communications and helped reduce loneliness and isolation for people in rural areas who were often a long way from neighbours. The telephone also provided employment for women as operators.

In 1900, a Quebec-born inventor named Reginald Fessenden made an astounding discovery while working in the United States. He sent the first voice message through the air, rather than along wires. It was the basis for all modern radio broadcasting. A year later in 1901 at Signal Hill in St. John's, Newfoundland, Guglielmo Marconi received the first wireless radio signal sent across the Atlantic Ocean. Before this time, messages travelled along a telegraph wire laid on the bottom of the ocean. In 1902, with the backing of the Canadian government, Marconi built a wireless station at Glace Bay, Nova Scotia. From there, he set up official transatlantic wireless communication. It was the beginning of government support for radio communications in Canada.

New Forms of Entertainment

Twenty years elapsed before radio broadcasting became a means of mass entertainment. In the first years of the twentieth century, people were more dependent on home-made entertainment such as the piano, banjo, and amateur theatrical productions. The phonograph or gramophone was coming in, but the thick, flat discs sounded scratchy and tinny. Not until the invention of electrical recording in the 1920s did the sound made from records improve.

Another form of entertainment was about to become immensely popular—moving pictures. The first films were silent and in black and white. Dialogue was shown on the screen as captions. A pianist often added music and sound effects. Movies became so popular that Ernest Ouimet opened one of the world's first deluxe movie theatres in Montreal in 1906. It had a thousand seats and a six-piece orchestra.

Very few movies were made in Canada, however. Movies came from the United States. Hollywood was beginning to develop as the centre of the movie industry in the early 1900s. Canadian-born star Mary Pickford made her first film in 1909, and Charlie Chaplin made his in 1911. Hollywood would continue to have a major impact on Canadian movie goers and the Canadian entertainment industry for years to come.

Changing Lifestyles

In the early 1900s, changes were taking place in life around the home as well. For one thing, modern bathrooms with running water and indoor toilets became more common. Before this time, toilets were outdoor pits—basically holes dug in the ground. Water came unpurified from rivers and lakes, and since there were no sewer systems, people commonly tossed

their slop out of doors. Diseases from contaminated water and food were not uncommon.

Wealthier homes had refrigerators and electric lights. Electric washing machines took some of the drudgery out of washday. Other gadgets included sewing machines, vacuum cleaners, and even electric hearing aids. Canadians who could afford them purchased these gadgets from the Eaton's catalogue. The catalogue was considered by several generations to be the

most popular book in Canada. Rural families in particular depended on the catalogue for everything from fence posts to fashionable hats.

It was some time before most Canadians could afford all the modern conveniences, however. The new appliances allowed wealthier women more leisure time, but for most families, work around the home still involved a great deal of hard physical work.



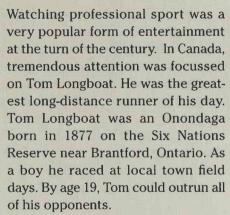
Netsurfer

For more information on famous Canadians in a variety of different fields, visit http://schwinger.harvard.edu/ ~terning/Canadians/ or www.heroes.ca.



SPOTLIGHT ON ...

Tom Longboat



In 1906, Longboat burst onto the Canadian sporting scene by winning the Hamilton Around-the-Bay race. Longboat had a deceptive running

style with long, smooth strides. In 1907 he raced the tough, hilly course of the Boston Marathon. Against 125 opponents, Longboat set a record of 2 hours, 21 minutes, 24 seconds, battling snow, rain, and slush. He ended the race 400 m ahead of the second place runner. His record was not broken until the course of the Boston Marathon was changed to make it easier.

In 1908 he ran in the Olympics in London,



England, but collapsed after 32 km. However, later that year in New York, he won the professional marathon championship. In 1909 at Madison Square Gardens in New York, he took part in the "race of the century." He raced against a professional runner, Alfie Shrubb. At the 39 km mark, Longboat passed Shrubb and went on to win the race. Longboat was proclaimed the world's best long-distance runner. Each time Tom Longboat ran, crowds flocked to see him.

Tom Longboat later enlisted in the Canadian army and fought overseas in World War I. He served on

the Western Front as a dispatch runner. He got a job with the Toronto streets department in 1926, and retired from there in 1945. He died in 1949 at the Six Nations Reserve.

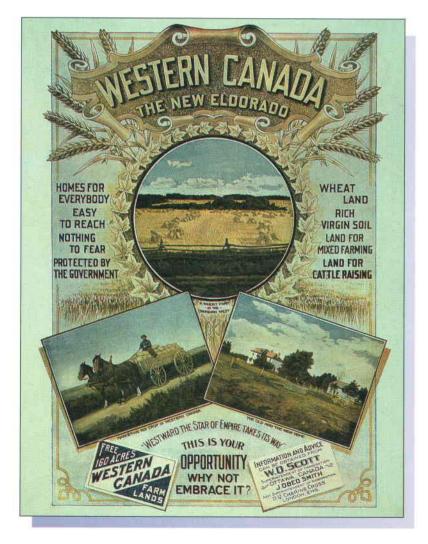
1. Research other famous Canadian sports figures of the early twentieth century. Prepare a mural with photos and captions telling about the individuals or teams and their accomplishments.

Immigration Boom

In addition to new technologies, there were other winds of change in Canada. Between 1901 and 1911, Canada experienced the greatest wave of immigration in its history. Immigration is the movement of people into a country from other lands

In the late 1800s, the Canadian government was anxious to fill the western territories with settlers. People from eastern Canada, especially Ontario, flocked to take up homesteads on the Prairies. But by the 1890s, there were still not enough set-

A poster advertising Canada's West. What impressions does it give?



tlers in the West. In 1896, Prime Minister Wilfrid Laurier's Liberal government decided to take a new approach. Clifford Sifton, Minister of the Interior in Laurier's government, introduced an "open door" policy towards immigrants.

Conditions were right for new immigrants to come to Canada, Faster steamships were travelling the oceans. In Canada, the transcontinental Canadian Pacific Railway had been completed in 1885. Immigrants could now ride the rails across the country to the western Prairies. There was also a new world demand for wheat. As countries in Europe became more industrialized, more people were leaving farms to work in the factories. With fewer farmers producing food, European countries needed to buy food (especially wheat and flour for bread) from Canada and the United States. As world prices soared, growing wheat became more profitable for Canadian farmers. New farm machines such as the chilled steel plough and threshers also made farming more efficient and increased crops.

Choosing Canada

To attract immigrants, the Canadian government launched a massive advertising campaign in Britain, the United States, and Europe. Posters, pamphlets, exhibition vans, and recruiting agents all actively encouraged people to come to Canada. Between 1901 and 1913, 2.7 million people answered the call.

Before 1901, most immigrants had come from Britain and the United States. After 1901, Europeans including Ukrainians, Poles, Scandinavians, Russians, Germans, Austrians, Dutch, and others flooded into the western Prairies. Clifford Sifton was most interested in experienced farmers who could survive the tough prairie environment. Not all

new immigrants went to farm in the West, however. By 1913, a large number had also moved into Canada's growing cities.

They came for many reasons. Some were fleeing political upheavals in their home countries. Others, such as Doukhobors and Mennonites from Russia, came to find religious freedom. The Russian government had ordered them to serve in the army. It was part of their faith that they should never go to war. In Canada, the government passed an Order-in-Council guaranteeing that they would not have to serve in the army. The government also offered them (and many other groups) blocks of land where they could settle together and follow their own cultural traditions.

Other people from Britain and Europe came to escape problems caused by industrialization and a growing population. In Eastern Europe, farms were being divided into smaller and smaller plots to provide for more people. Some farmers found they had hardly enough land to make a living. Their children grew up with little hope for a better future.

In European cities, many working people faced poverty and hunger. Cities were becoming overcrowded as young people from farming areas came looking for jobs in the growing industries. Working people had few opportunities for better jobs, higher wages, or an education. Most people could never afford to own their own land or their homes. With such prospects, many people were willing to put together their few belongings and cross the ocean to Canada.

Canada's West offered wide open spaces, free land (65 ha under the Dominion Land Act of 1872), and a chance for a fresh start. Furthermore, by 1890, the best land in the American West was already taken up. Canada was "the last, best West." Americans also came in

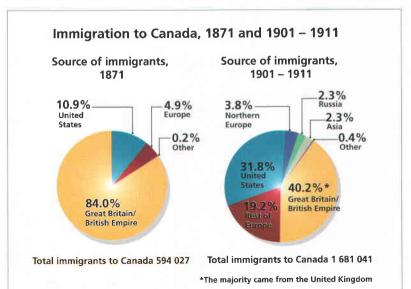
large numbers since they could sell their land at a good price and then receive 65 ha free in Canada. Later, they could buy more land at a few dollars per hectare and still have money left over to buy new machinery or horses.

Immigrants to Canada, 1900-1913

Year	Number of immigrants
1900	41 681
1901	49 149
1902	89 102
1903	138 660
1904	131 252
1905	136 266
1906	211 653
1907	272 409
1908	143 326
1909	173 694
1910	286 839
1911	331 288
1912	375 756
1913	400 870

Source: Dominion Bureau of Statistics

From where did the majority of immigrants come in 1871? How had this percentage changed by 1911?





IMPACT ON SOCIETY

THE SEEDS OF ETHNIC DIVERSITY

The immigration boom at the beginning of the twentieth century brought many different ethnic groups to Canada. Though they faced resentment, isolation, and economic challenges in their early years, they eventually became an integral part of Canada's social fabric and made important contributions to Canada's growth and diversity. The following are just some of the groups who settled in Canada during the greatest immigration wave in our history.

British Home Children

The Home Children were destitute children and orphans from homes run by charities in England. Between 1867 and 1924, as many as 100 000 British children came to Canada. The majority were between the ages of 7 and 14. Most were placed in foster homes across the country, usually in rural areas. Boys often worked on farms, while girls became domestic servants in small towns or in farm homes. Life was lonely and difficult for these children, especially since they were mainly treated as "just the hired hands." When their work terms were done, many went to work in manufacturing, logging, mining, and service industries. Few became rich and famous, but they contributed to Canada's growth and secured better prospects for their children.

Doukhobors

The Doukhobors faced persecution in their home country of Russia for their religious and political beliefs. It was against their faith to serve in the military or to swear allegiance to a King or Queen. Close to 7500 Doukhobors came to Canada in 1899. The Canadian government guaranteed they would not have to serve in the military. It also granted them about 750 000 ha of land in what is now Saskatchewan so that they could live in villages and share their land, rather than register individual ownership. They believed in a communal system, in

which land was shared by those who worked it. Men often worked on the railways to supplement their farm incomes, and women ploughed the fields.

However, in 1906 a new Minister of the Interior replaced Clifford Sifton and the government changed its policy. Many English Canadians found it difficult to accept the Doukhobors' religious beliefs and communal lifestyle. Suspicions increased when a small radical group of Doukhobors marched into Winnipeg looking for a new "promised land." The Canadian government insisted that the Doukhobors follow standard procedures, and register individual ownership of their lands. This included an intention to become a citizen and swear an oath of allegiance to the Crown. Many Doukhobors refused on religious grounds.

In 1907, 2500 homesteads were cancelled and the Doukhobors lost about 400 000 ha of land. The community was divided. Some stayed on in a special reserve provided by the government based on 6 ha per villager. Others moved away, many to British Columbia.

Ukrainians

The Ukrainians were the largest group of immigrants from central and eastern Europe. Over 170 000 came between 1896 and 1913. Many were attracted by the promise of *vilni zemli* (free land). The first group of 4000 settled together in Alberta about 65 km east of Edmonton. Ukrainian settlements soon grew into prosperous villages marked by clay houses with thatched roofs and a community church. Many Ukrainians worked as farmers, on the railways, in mines and logging camps, and in city businesses. They were viewed as hard-working people, who like many other immigrants were willing to labour for low wages just to become established. But the fact that they encouraged their children to speak in their heritage language, wear national dress, and pre-

serve their cultural traditions made the Ukrainians suspect among English Canadians. Many people in the West wanted to "Canadianize" immigrants. English was made the only language of instruction in schools. Petro Humeniuk, one of the first Ukrainian teachers in Canada, told this story.

In the year I began teaching, the bilingual education law was abolished. Although there were many more Ukrainian students at Stuartburn school than when I was a student, I could not teach them in Ukrainian. The new law

them in Ukrainian. The new law said that during school hours I had to teach all my students in English.

... After school I taught the Ukrainian students to read and write in their own language. I wanted them to know the history and geography of the country their parents came from. I wanted them to learn Ukrainian crafts, literature, and our beautiful songs and dances. If the children knew their past they would be proud of our Ukrainian customs and traditions. Then they would feel good about themselves in their new country and pass on our Ukrainian culture to their Canadian children and grandchildren.

Black Settlers

In 1901, the Black population in Canada was about 18 000. In the early 1900s, a number of Black Americans moved north into Canada's West from



Ukrainian immigrants on board ship. Immigrants faced a long and difficult journey on ships that had recently carried grain and cattle.

the state of Oklahoma, When Oklahoma became a state in 1907, Black settlers faced segregation (laws requiring that they live in separate communities, go to Black-only schools, etc.) and anti-Black violence. They were being pushed from their land. Some saw Canada's West as a safe haven and were attracted by the offer of free land. By 1909, hundreds of Blacks had formed communities on the Canadian Prairies from Alberta to Thunder Bay, Ontario.

But as more Black settlers moved north, they began to meet resistance. In 1911, an article in the Edmonton Journal stated: "Whether well-founded or not, we have to face the fact that a great deal of prejudice exists against the coloured man and that his presence in large numbers creates problems from which we naturally shrink." Many Canadians at this time wanted to keep Canada British and white. Some people associated Blacks with racial violence and crime. In response to public pressure, the Canadian government tried to block more Black immigrants. Immigration officials were rewarded for turning back Black settlers and tried to declare many unfit on medical grounds. In 1911, the government stated that Blacks were "unsuitable to the climate and requirements of Canada." Despite these obstacles, about 1500 Blacks came to Canada between 1909 and 1911. Black immigration did not reach large numbers, however, until the 1950s.

- 1. a) Why do you think many Canadians resented the new immigrants who arrived during this period?
 - b) Have attitudes toward new immigrants changed today? How and why?
- 2. Choose one immigrant group who came to Canada during the period 1896 to 1913. Create a short profile of the group including how many people came, why they came, where they settled, and their contributions to Canada. You may want to highlight some key individuals as well. Gather the profiles from your class and mount them on a bulletin board display.

Immigrants who went to the cities found work in the growing factories and in construction. They hoped to earn a decent income and get an education for their children. To many, Canada offered at least a brighter future for their children. Some immigrants, especially British and Americans, came looking for adventure and new business opportunities.

Contributions

The flood of immigrants contributed to Canada's growing population and workforce. In the West, immigrants were the driving force behind the agricultural boom. Many established prosperous homesteads and began farming wheat in large quantities. In the cities, many immigrants worked in the factories and in construction. They often took the most dangerous or difficult jobs laying streetcar tracks, digging sewer systems, and labouring in the expanding textile factories. Some also took seasonal jobs working in mines, logging camps, or in railway and road construction.

With the immigration boom, the population of western Canada increased rapidly. Towns sprang up, roads were built, and railway lines branched out. Regina, Saskatoon, Calgary, and Edmonton mushroomed in size. Two new provinces were created. In 1905, Alberta and Saskatchewan became the newest members of Confederation.

By 1911, over 80 per cent of the people in the West were born outside Canada.

Immigrants played an important part in Canada's rising economic prosperity and in the development of the country.

A Discriminatory Policy

But while British, European, and American immigrants were welcomed into Canada, other groups were discouraged. Canada's immigration policy was discriminatory. People of African (Black), Italian, Asian, Arab, Greek, and Jewish origin, for example, were not welcomed into Canada during this period, though some came nonetheless. It was thought they would not make good farmers and would not easily assimilate or become absorbed into Canadian society.

Most people of British heritage in Canada supported the idea of **Anglo-conformity**. In other words, they believed immigrants should abandon their cultural traditions and adopt the behaviour and values of English-Canadian society. At the same time, many French Canadians feared that "foreigners" would lessen their chances for French language rights and separate schools in the West. As a result, new immigrants often faced attitudes of suspicion and resentment.

After 1900, Canada's immigration policies became even more restrictive, particularly toward people from Asia. A number of Chinese immigrants had come to Canada in the 1880s to work on the Canadian Pacific Railway. Without them,

FAST FORWARD

Today, Canada is one of the most multicultural nations in the world. Our ethnic diversity is largely the result of waves of immigration during the twentieth century. In 1901, Canada's population was 60 per cent British, 30 per cent French, and 10 per cent other groups. By the 1990s, no one ethnic group represented a majority in the Canadian population. The 2 million immigrants who came to Canada between 1901 and 1911 laid the groundwork for our cultural diversity. They still represent the greatest wave of immigration in Canadian history.

the railway could not have been built. But when the railway was complete, the Canadian government acted to discourage more Chinese immigration to Canada. All Chinese immigrants were required to pay a head tax of \$50 in 1885. This tax was raised to \$100 in 1900 and to \$500 in 1903— a staggering amount of money at the time.

In British Columbia, riots broke out in 1907 to protest immigration from China. Japan, and India, British Columbians were concerned that they would lose their jobs to the newcomers, who were often willing to work for lower wages. Japanese immigration was restricted to 400 persons a year. In 1914, a number of Sikhs on board a steamer called the Komagata Maru were not allowed into Vancouver. While the ship waited in the harbour as government officials decided what to do, people in the streets protested against allowing the newcomers into the city. The 5000 Sikhs who had settled in Vancouver earlier deeply resented the treatment of the people aboard the Komagata Maru. Tensions remained high in the city for many years afterwards. Restrictions on Asian immigration remained in effect for another 60 years.

Urbanization

With the growth of industries and increased immigration, Canada was also becoming more urban. **Urbanization** is the movement of people into cities and towns.

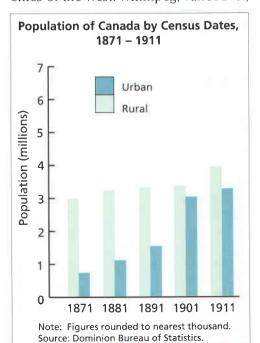
Before 1900, the vast majority of people in Canada lived on farms, in villages, or in small towns. With the development of new farm machinery, however, fewer workers were needed on the farms. Many young people flocked to cities and towns looking for work in the new factories. Since farms were usually passed on to the eldest son, many younger sons and daugh-



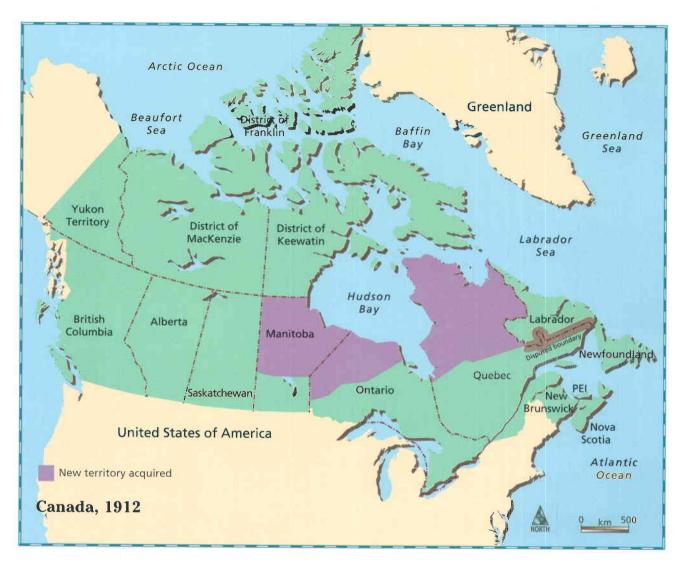
ters moved to the cities looking for new opportunities. New immigrants also fueled the growth of cities such as Toronto, Montreal, Winnipeg, and Vancouver.

Canada's two largest cities, Montreal and Toronto, doubled in size by 1921, but the most spectacular growth was in the cities of the West, Winnipeg, Vancouver,

A Chinese head tax certificate. Measures such as the head tax were used to restrict Asian immigration to Canada in the early 1900s.



Between 1901 and 1911, Canada's urban population increased by 62 per cent. By 1911, four cities—Montreal, Toronto, Winnipeg, and Vancouver—had populations over 100 000.



Alberta and Saskatchewan became provinces of Canada in 1905. In 1912, the boundaries of Manitoba, Quebec, and Ontario were extended. With their larger territories, these provinces gained new resources and new opportunities for development.

Edmonton, and Calgary became vibrant centres. Regina grew from a population of just a few at a lonely outpost to 30 000 by 1910. In Calgary, there were twice as many real estate offices as grocery stores. Cities expanded at a slower rate in the Maritimes, though Halifax and Saint John showed steady growth.

Most cities developed industrial centres. Along with the factories, workers lived here in tiny homes crowded together on small lots. Most workers were renters since they could not afford to buy their own homes. Landlords often spent little money

on maintaining the buildings and many areas became slums. They had few public services such as sewage systems. City development was haphazard and unplanned.

Wealthy families, on the other hand, built large homes on spacious lots away from the noise, odours, and crowded conditions of the industrial areas. Cities developed distinct neighbourhoods. Sometimes railway lines coming into the cities were the dividing lines. If you came from "the wrong side of the tracks," you were from the poorer side of town.

Other neighbourhoods gradually developed on the outskirts of towns and cities. Electric trams, automobiles, and bicycles made it easier for people to live farther from their workplaces. These neighbourhoods were the first **suburbs**. Gradually, city governments began to plan development and provide more services such as sewage systems, water treatment plants, and more tram lines.



Urbanization and industrialization also created social problems. Society in 1900 was marked by inequalities. One of the most striking was the wide gap between the rich and the poor. The rich were very rich. Taxes were so low that the wealthy were left with almost all of their money to spend. Most of it went on clothes, houses, horses, and carriages.

Sir Henry Pellatt was a prime example. Pellatt is reported to have made millions in the Toronto Electric Light Company and mining stocks. In 1910 he sank \$2 million into the building of Casa Loma, a palatial

home in Toronto. Casa Loma contained 30 bathrooms, 3 bowling alleys, 52 telephones, and the world's finest indoor rifle range. The stables had mahogany stalls and Persian rugs, and Pellatt once had a custom set of false teeth made for his favourite horse.

However, the average Canadian at the turn of the century still lit a kerosene or gas lamp and cooked on a wood stove. Women shopped every day, scrubbed clothes on a washboard, put up pickles and fruit preserves, and beat their rugs with a wire whip. At the bottom of the economic ladder were the recent immigrants. Most immigrants came to Canada with very little. Many who decided to live in towns or cities were forced to live in crowded basement rooms or attics where sanitation and ventilation were poor. Not all found the land of new opportunities and prosperity they hoped for.

In fact, up to half of urban workers lived below the poverty line (the income needed to meet basic necessities such as food, shelter). Many families sent young children out to work to help bring in extra income. Women took low-paying jobs in factories or worked in sweatshops.



New immigrants on a Winnipeg street. Why did many new immigrants have difficulties finding homes?



Developing Skills: Note-Making

Everyone needs to take notes at some point. We often need notes on what we read, hear, or see. You might take notes, for example:

- when someone calls on the phone and leaves a message
- when you are going shopping and need a list
- when you are invited to a friend's house and are given directions
- when your teacher or other students are making a presentation
- when you are reading from a text or other resource and need to record some information.

Note-making skills will be very valuable to you in the future. In almost every job or career, people use note-making skills. They need to be able to record instructions, summarize written reports, make written reports of a meeting or discussion, or record observations from field work.

These are the main steps in note-making. Step 1 Write the topic at the top of your note. Comprehension Step 2 Decide on the main idea and write it down. Step 3 Decide on the most Categorizing important supporting statements or ideas. Step 4 Organize the ideas Organizing and summarize them and in your own words Summarizing in point form.

Making notes involves four main skills. The first is **comprehension**. You need to understand what you read, hear, or see and recognize the main idea. Then you need to record the state-

ments that support the main idea. A simple example from page 17 of the text would look like this:

Horses

Horses were important to everyone in 1900

- · at birth and death
- for farming
- · for delivering goods
- for streetcars

Sometimes what you read, hear, or see includes a lot of detail that you don't really need to remember. Then you use the skill of **categorizing**. When you categorize, you pick out only the most important statements that support the main idea and leave out the less important statements. An example from page 17 of the text would look like this:

Bicycles

Why bicycles were an exciting new invention

- provided freedom and mobility
- cheaper to buy and operate than horses
- people could live farther from their jobs
- people could use bicycles on their jobs
- people joined cycling clubs
- · changed women's fashions
- helped to break down social barriers

(Note that less important ideas were left out: schools started for riding; cycling clubs organized tours, rallies, races.)

Finally, note-making also involves the skills of **organizing** and **summarizing**. Organizing means that you select your material and put it together in your own words in a logical way. Summarizing means that many words are reduced to a few. The main idea has to be expressed in such a way that in six months you can still understand what you have written. An example from page 17 of the text would look like this:

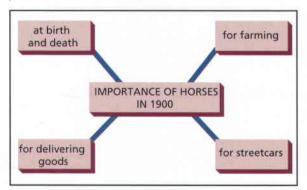
Automobiles

Horseless carriage is introduced

- Ford founded in 1899
- Samuel McLaughlin mass produced them in Canada by 1908
- rich person's toy
- automobiles not affordable for most people until the 1920s

(Note that the section in the text, containing 194 words, has been summarized in 30 words.)

There are other methods you can use for making notes as well. You may find diagrams, drawings, or charts helpful in organizing your notes, for example. The key is that you understand the main ideas, clearly highlight the supporting details, and logically summarize the material so that you have a quick review when you look over your notes at a later time. Find the method that works best for you. Here is one example of another method:



Practise It

- 1. Use your skills to make notes on other sections of this chapter. You could work in groups of six, with each person working on one of the sections outlined below. When you are finished, provide everyone in your group with a copy of your note. You don't need to put your name on it.
- · Flight!

- Changing Lifestyles
- Instant Communications
 Immigration Boom
- · New Forms of Entertainment
- Urbanization
- 2. Take time to go over everyone's notes and then discuss them in your group. Was there anything you didn't understand in any of the notes? Which do you think were the clearest? Why?
- Select one occupation or career from the list below or choose a different one. Describe how you would use note-making skills on a typical day in this job.
- police officer
- electrician
- computer programmer
 actor

nurse

- salesperson
- journalist
- carpenter

- manager

Women and children, because they were unskilled labour, were paid the lowest wages.

Working conditions in factories were often harsh and unsafe. Hours were long, often ten-hour days, six days a week. There was no unemployment insurance for those who lost their jobs. Workers injured on the job got no compensation and there were no pensions for those too old to work, no medical plans, no coffee breaks, and no paid holidays. With little relief from the drudgery of their lives, many men turned to alcohol. Drinking led to brawls, abuse in families, and the spending of wages needed for food and other necessities.

Women, children, and Aboriginal people also faced inequalities and social problems. The chart on pages 33-34 outlines the major concerns of groups in Canadian society and some of the actions taken to deal with their concerns.

Since there were few government programs, such as unemployment insurance and pension plans, people helped each other or organized charities. Many immiaid societies. Members of these societies helped each other when they were in need. In their home countries, families would have traditionally offered help and support, but in Canada many immigrants were on their own. Polish immigrants formed their first mutual aid society in 1872. The Hungarian Sick-Benefit Society was founded in 1901 in Lethbridge, Alberta. Germans, Lithuanians, Italians, Finns, Ukrainians, Chinese, and others formed similar groups. These groups:

- provided assistance to sick, disabled, and unemployed members and to those too old to work
- offered companionship to combat feelings of loneliness and isolation
- organized cultural events, festivals, and burial or religious ceremonies
- kept libraries of ethnic language books and newspapers to preserve their languages and traditions

 helped recent immigrants get settled by introducing them to social and legal aspects of life and offering translation services

The Chinese Consolidated Benevolent Society in British Columbia ran homes for the sick, poor (including many railway workers who lost their jobs), and elderly. It also opened the first Chinese public school and pressured the government to end discriminatory practices against Chinese Canadians. In Montreal, the Coloured Women's Club worked to break down barriers women of colour faced in getting jobs and finding good housing, for example.

Many of these ethnic organizations remained active until after World War II when more government support programs were introduced. Some changed to meet the changing needs of their communities.

Black members of the Young Women's Christian Association outside the YWCA boarding house in Toronto. Groups like this offered help to those in need.



Movements for Social Reform

Group

Concerns

Actions

Factory and mine workers Unsafe working conditions



Unsafe working conditions

Low wages, long working hours

Poverty

Unsanitary, crowded housing conditions

Formed unions* and organized strikes

Provincial government passed laws to deal with poor working conditions (e.g., Factory Act of Ontario 1884)

Federal government established Ministry of Labour in 1900 to govern disputes between workers and owners

Labour Day was made a national holiday in 1904 to officially recognize contributions of workers

City governments began to provide more services such as sewage lines to housing areas

Women



No political rights (e.g., right to vote, hold political office)

Poor working conditions and lower wages than men

Few opportunities for post-secondary education and for careers outside teaching and nursing Few opportunities outside unskilled jobs in offices, stores, and as domestic servants Formed organizations to teach women their rights and improve working conditions (e.g., Women's Literary Club formed by Emily Stowe, Coloured Women's Club of Montreal)

Gained political experience through pressure groups such as Women's Christian Temperance Union that worked for laws against the sale of alcohol

Organized groups to study nutrition, child care, sanitation, and household management (e.g., Women's Institute founded by Adelaide Hoodless 1897)

Developed leaders such as Nellie McClung and Emily Murphy

Followed paths forged by pioneers in careers, such as Dr. Emily Stowe

Poor



Malnutrition and other illnesses
High death rates
Alcohol abuse
Poor housing conditions
Lack of educational opportunities

Boards of Health began to work for better sanitary conditions

Church and private charities offered help Women's Christian Temperance Union battled against alcohol abuse

Provinces passed laws for compulsory elementary education

Social Services Council of Canada was formed in 1912

^{*} A union is an organization of workers who join together to improve their working conditions. The federal government legalized unions in Canada in 1872.

Movements for Social Reform

Group

Concerns

Actions

Children and Youth



High infant death rates from disease and malnutrition

Child labour and unsafe working conditions Lack of education for poor and farm children Government introduced immunization programs
Provincial governments passed laws against child
labour and for compulsory elementary education

Women organized groups to learn about nutrition, child care, etc.

Schools organized lunch programs and school nurses

Private charities set up homes for abandoned, abused, and orphaned children

Aboriginal nations



Loss of traditional lifestyles; many lived on reserves Poverty and ill-health

Pressures to assimilate and loss of cultural identities (children were separated from families and sent to residential schools where they were forbidden from speaking their languages and following their cultural traditions)

Voiced concerns but not yet politically organized enough to have an impact

Lives were controlled by Indian Act and Federal Department of Indian Affairs

Concerns were largely overlooked

Immigrants



Inadequate housing and unsanitary, crowded conditions

Poverty

Isolation and Ioneliness

Low wages and poor working conditions (often first laid off)

Discrimination, resentment, pressures to assimilate Lack of political rights (could not vote until became citizens)

Formed mutual aid societies (members helped one another in need)

Formed clubs and organizations to preserve their cultures and languages

Joined unions

Requested consulates to represent their concerns to the Canadian government

For one of the groups in the chart, choose two actions taken to address its concerns.
 Do research to find out more about these actions and how effective they were.
 Present your findings in a bulletin board display. Include photos where possible.



Understand Facts and Concepts

- 1. Start a *Factfile* on Canadian history. This *Factfile* will be your personal file of key terms, their meanings, and their historical importance. Set aside a section of your notebook for your *Factfile* or create it on computer. You will be adding to your file as you encounter new terms throughout your study. Use your *Factfile* as a quick reference any time you need a review of some key information.
 - a) Divide the pages in your notebook or on your computer into three columns. Make the middle column the widest.
 - b) In the left column, write the key term. In the middle column, write a definition or description of the term. Include a picture, sketch, or computer graphic in your definition if you find them helpful.
 - c) In the third column, write a brief point-form note about the historical importance of the term.

Start your Factfile with the following terms.

"horseless carriages" Komagata Maru
Aerial Experiment Association urbanization
Silver Dart suburbs
immigration unions

Anglo-conformity mutual aid societies

Key Terms	Meaning	Historical Significance
Aerial Experiment		
Association		

- 2. Outline the major effects that the following technological changes had on life at the turn of the twentieth century.
 - a) bicycle
 - b) airplane
 - c) automobile
 - d) telephone
 - e) silent movies
- 3. a) Why did the government want to attract new immigrants after 1896?
 - b) What methods did Clifford Sifton use to attract people to Canada?
 - c) Which groups came to Canada? Which groups were excluded? Why?
- 4. Why did people move to cities at the turn of the century?
- 5. Contrast the lifestyles of the rich and poor in the first decade of the twentieth century.

Think and Communicate

- 6. a) Build a model or draw a diagram of an important invention from the early twentieth century, such as the *Silver Dart*, telephone, gramophone, wireless, or electric streetcar. Explain to a group of your classmates how the invention worked and why it was important.
 - b) Which technological changes mentioned in Question 2 above do you think had the greatest impact on life at the turn of the century? Why? Justify your answer.
- 7. Reread the text on pages 22-26. Several factors drew new immigrants to Canada at the turn of the century (pull factors). Other circumstances encouraged people to leave their homelands (push factors). Categorize these factors to complete the following chart.



- 8. Research posters that were used to attract new immigrants to Canada from 1896 to 1913. Evaluate how accurate a picture of Canada these posters presented.
- 9. In 1912, a Sikh leader in Canada, Dr. Sundar Singh, spoke about Canada's immigration policy. He stated: "They [Sikhs] are British subjects: they have fought for the Empire; . . . but, in spite of this fact, they are not allowed to have their families with them when they come to this country . . . To others you advance money to come here, and yet to us, British subjects, you refuse to let down the bars." (Empire Club of Canada, *Addresses Delivered to Members during the Session of 1911-12*, Toronto, 1913). What is Dr. Singh's objection? Why? Find out more about this policy. Do you think it was just? Explain.
- Create a pamphlet for one of the following organizations. The purpose of your pamphlet is to let people know about actions for social change your organization supports.
 - a) Women's Christian Temperance Union
 - b) Coloured Women's Club of Montreal
 - c) a labour union
 - d) a mutual aid society for a particular immigrant group
- 11. In groups, create a page from a city newspaper published in the early 1900s. Include headlines, news items, editorials, and photos to cover the major events and issues that you have read about in this chapter. For example, you might have been a

reporter present at the first flight of the *Silver Dart* in Nova Scotia, or you might be writing a letter to the editor about the conditions in the city for new immigrants. Try laying out your newspaper on computer.

Apply Your Knowledge

- 12. Compare Canadian lifestyles at the beginning of the century with Canadian lifestyles today. Use the following criteria in a comparison organizer: transportation, entertainment, sports, and inventions. Find illustrations in catalogues or books to compare female and male fashions then and now.
- 13. New inventions had a great effect on life at the turn of the century. Can you think of a modern invention that is affecting your life as much as the telephone or automobile changed the lives of people at the turn of the century? Explain.
- 14. In the early 1900s, the Canadian government placed restrictions on Black and Asian immigration to Canada.
 - a) Discuss why restrictions were placed on these groups.
 - b) Do you think the restrictions were justified? Why or why not?
 - c) Not all Canadians supported these restrictions. What arguments would you make against the measures?
 - d) What effects do you think these restrictions had on Black and Asian people in Canada at the time?
 - e) How do you feel about the measures today?

Get to the Source

15. When he was Minister of the Interior, Clifford Sifton described the kind of immigrant he was looking for in Europe.

The peasants, the men in sheepskin coats, are the ones that are wanted here in Canada. When I speak of quality I have in mind something that is quite different from what is in the mind of the average person. I think that a stalwart peasant in a sheepskin coat, born on the soil, whose forefathers have been farmers for ten generations, with a stout wife and a half-dozen children, is good quality as an immigrant. I do not care whether or not he is British-born. It does not matter what his nationality is.

Source: Maclean's Magazine, vol. 35, April 1, 1922, 16.

- a) What does "born on the soil" suggest about the type of immigrants Sifton wanted? What other characteristics does he want Canada's immigrants to have?
- b) Why would he want these types of immigrants?
- c) Sifton believed that southern Europeans and people of colour would not make good farmers. He did not want immigrants who would move into Canada's cities. Do you think this view was justified? Why or why not?
- d) Why do you think Sifton says his views are different from the average person? How did Canadians react to immigrants from European countries?



Canada and the World

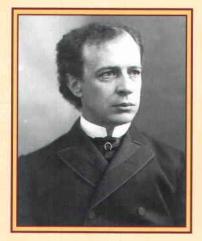
*

Profile of a Prime Minister

In 1896 Wilfrid Laurier had entered the House of Commons in Ottawa to the sound of cheering and applause. He had made his way to the seat Sir John A. Macdonald had occupied for 19 years. Laurier, the leader of the Liberal party, was Canada's seventh prime minister. He was in power for the next 15 years. No prime minister except Macdonald had been

in power longer. Those 15 years became known as the "Golden Age of Laurier."

Wilfrid Laurier was Canada's first French-Canadian prime minister. He was born near the village of St. Lin in the province of Quebec. When he was 11, his father had sent him to school in the English-speaking settlement at New Glasgow. There he studied English and became fluently bilingual. He lived with the Murray family, who were Scottish Protestants, and worked as a clerk in a village store. Laurier learned a great deal about the culture and religion of English-speaking Protestants. He also learned to be tolerant of people different from himself.



Later, Laurier chose to study law at McGill University in Montreal. He graduated in 1864 and gave the valedictory address. In his speech, he touched on a concern that was to dominate his life. "Two races share today the soil of Canada," he said about the French and English, who had not always been friends. "But I hasten to say it ... There is no longer any family here but the

human family. It matters not the language people speak, or the altars at which they kneel."

Following graduation, Laurier opened a law practice at Arthabaskaville, Quebec. The townspeople were impressed with his honesty, courage, and sense of fair play. They chose him to represent them in the federal government in Ottawa. In 1887, he became the leader of the Liberal party and was known as an excellent speaker. Sir John A. Macdonald admired his political opponent and recognized him as one of Canada's most promising politicians.

Laurier tried to see both English- and French-Canadian points of view. His main aim

was to keep both language groups together and to make sure each treated the other fairly. Laurier continually tried to work out compromises that he hoped would be acceptable to both English and French Canadians.

In 1897, Laurier travelled to England and was knighted by the Queen. Before he returned to Canada, he wanted to visit France. It was the country of his forebears, and he had never been there. In a speech in Paris, Laurier said, "French Canadians have not forgotten France ... Here in France people are surprised at the attachment French Canadians feel for the Queen of England. We are faithful to the nation which gave us life (France), and we are faithful to the great nation that gave us liberty (Britain)."

Laurier also had a vision of Canada as a nation with its own distinct identity. He was a strong supporter of greater independence for the dominions within the British Empire. On the world stage, Laurier was determined to gain recognition for Canada as a nation with interests different from those of both Britain and the United States.

- 1. What qualities did Laurier possess that prepared him for the position of prime minister?
- 2. Did Laurier see Canada as a country in which French and English Canadians could live together? Explain. Which other groups did he not consider? Why?
- 3. Brainstorm the issues Canada might have with Britain and the United States.



Stepping Onto the World Stage

From Confederation to the turn of the century. Canada was in many ways concerned with development at home. The country was expanding with new territories, the building of the Canadian Pacific Railway, and settlement of the West. By 1900, Canada was ready to look outward to the world.

The world was beginning to take notice. In the early decades of the twentieth century, the country was growing rapidly. New immigrants were pouring in, and the products of Canada's farms, mines, forests, and industries were flowing out at an unprecedented rate. Canada was establishing its place in the new global economy.

At the same time, Canada was taking its first steps toward gaining more control over its foreign affairs. Problems arose in Canada's relations with both Britain and the United States. These problems sparked a great deal of debate in Canada and divided French and English Canadians.



One major issue was British imperialism. Imperialism is a policy of establishing colonies away from the homeland and building an empire. In the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, many European countries were competing to gain colonies around the world. Colonies provided a source of raw materials, a market for manufactured goods, and prestige, glory, and military power for the home country.

Canada was part of the British Empire along with nations such as Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa. Some colonies were governed directly by Britain. Others such as Canada were self-governing dominions. In 1867, Canada had been the first British colony to become self-governing. But while Canada was largely independent in governing its affairs at home, Britain still controlled Canada's foreign affairs. British troops were stationed in Canada to defend it against any foreign threat. Britain also negotiated any treaties or other international agreements on Canada's behalf.

By the early 1900s, people were asking: Should Canada stay within the Empire, or should it become completely independent? Opinions were divided.

English-Canadian Views

Most English Canadians supported the imperialist movement. They were proud to be part of the British Empire. For many, supporting imperialism did not mean that they did not support Canadian **nationalism** (a feeling of loyalty to one's country). In fact, they believed that being part of the British Empire gave Canada greater international status and prestige. Within the British Empire, Canada shared the benefits of military support and special trade concessions. The Empire also linked Canada to nations that had similar social and political values. Some imperialists believed

A Canadian stamp issued in 1898. What does it suggest about how Canadians viewed their place in the British Empire?



Canada was not yet ready to stand alone as an independent nation. It needed the umbrella of the Empire. After all, some Americans were still talking about annexing Canada to the United States.

Others believed that Canada should become fully independent from the Empire. As a colony, they felt Canada would always be seen as inferior to Britain—in its foreign relations, economy, culture, and government.

A small group believed Canada should join the United States in a large North American nation. This would unite all English-speaking people on the continent into a great nation. Supporters of this view felt that trade and transportation links naturally flowed north-south, not east-west.

French-Canadian Views

Opinions were also divided among French Canadians. French Canadians did not feel the same sense of loyalty to the British Empire that English Canadians did. They felt a much stronger sense of pride in their French-Canadian culture and heritage. French-Canadian roots in Quebec went back to the early 1600s when the first settlements had been established. Quebec had been conquered by British soldiers in 1759, but it was still the homeland of French-Canadian culture.

As a minority, French Canadians felt isolated within Canada and the British Empire. The imperialist movement made many French Canadians feel that their culture and rights were threatened. A French-Canadian nationalist movement gained strength, particularly in Quebec.

French-Canadian Nationalism

At Confederation, Quebec had been guaranteed use of the French language in the

courts, government, and schools. They had also kept their system of civil law and Roman Catholic religion. But since 1867, a number of incidents led French Canadians to believe that their rights were being eroded in Canada.

Riel and the Métis

Bitter feelings still lingered over the execution of Louis Riel in 1885. Riel was the leader of the French-speaking Métis (people of mixed French and Aboriginal heritage) in the West. In 1869-70 and again in 1885, he led uprisings to fight for Métis land rights and the right to keep their French language and culture.

In 1870, Riel had ordered the execution of Thomas Scott. Scott was an English-speaking Protestant settler in the Red River Settlement. He had protested against the provisional government Riel had established in the settlement. Scott was part of a group who believed English Protestants should control the West and he had threatened to kill Riel.

The execution of Scott caused a storm of protest in Ontario, Scott's home province. People said Scott had been murdered. Threats were made on Riel's life. Riel fled for a time to the United States. In 1885, he came back to Canada to fight again for the Métis. But after the Rebellion of 1885, he was tried and hanged for treason against the Canadian government and the Queen.

In Ontario, many people saw Riel as a rebel. But in Quebec, he was seen as a hero who had fought for the rights of the French-speaking Métis. Many Quebeckers saw Riel's execution as a direct attack on French-Canadian culture by the federal government. It was a message that the French-Canadian "nation" in Quebec had to be protected from federal government power and interference.



French Language Rights Outside Quebec

In 1890, the Manitoba Schools question deepened the divide between French and English Canadians. When Manitoba became a province in 1870, English and French were given equal status in the province's government, courts, and schools. Manitoba had a system of French Roman Catholic separate schools supported by government tax money. But by 1890, large numbers of English-speaking Protestants had moved into the province. French-speaking Manitobans had become a minority. Pressure mounted for a single English-speaking school system.

In 1890, the Manitoba Schools Act set up a single school system not connected with any church and with instruction only in English. Supporters of Roman Catholic schools took their case before the Canadian courts, However, the courts ruled that Canada's constitution gave each province the right to manage its own education system. After Wilfrid Laurier was elected in 1896, he worked out a compromise. Manitoba would no longer have a complete system of Roman Catholic schools supported by taxpayers. However, Roman Catholic teachers would be allowed to provide religious instruction to Roman Catholic children for part of the school day. French-speaking teachers The trial of Louis Riel. Why did Riel's execution cause bitter feelings between French and English Canadians? would be provided where 10 or more students spoke French. In 1916, however, these rights were taken away and English was made the official language in Manitoba schools.

The issue flared up again when Alberta and Saskatchewan were made provinces in 1905. The area of the two new provinces had been part of the North-West Territories. Both Protestant and Catholic schools, French and English instruction, had been guaranteed in the North-West Territories in 1877. But by 1890, as Englishspeaking settlers had flooded into the region, French-language schooling had been drastically cut back. The Englishspeaking majority wanted a single-language school system. The schools would be a way to "Canadianize" new immigrants who arrived speaking a number of different languages. Laurier was sympathetic to Catholic schools and French-language teaching. But in the end, an English-language school system was given government support. The compromise was that minority groups could set up separate schools if they wished, but they would not be funded by the government.

Five years later, it was the same debate in Ontario. Many Quebeckers had

Henri Bourassa, who founded the newspaper Le Devoir, was an outspoken supporter of French-Canadian rights.

moved into northern and eastern Ontario after 1900. By 1910, Franco-Ontarians made up about 10 per cent of the province's population. They had organized an education association to protect English-French schools. They wanted to promote French-language interests in the province. Some Ontarians, however, saw the expansion of French outside Ouebec as a threat to British institutions and to imperial unity. **Regulation 17** in 1910 made English the official language of schools in Ontario. French would be taught only in the first two years of elementary school. The controversy raged on for years. It was not until 1927 that the Ontario government allowed some bilingual schools in the province.

In the midst of the Ontario controversy, French-Canadian nationalist Henri Bourassa warned: "If we let the French minorities which are our outposts be sacrificed one by one, the day will come when the Province of Quebec itself will undergo assault." With this sense of a mounting threat, Quebec nationalism continued to gain momentum.

A Bicultural Canada or Separation?

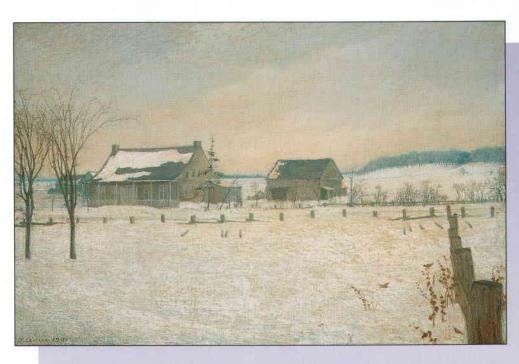
There were two basic views. Some people saw the future of French Canadians within Confederation. Others believed Ouebec should separate from Canada. Wilfrid Laurier supported the first view. So did Henri Bourassa. They saw Canada as a fully bicultural and bilingual nation in which English and French cultures and languages could be treated equally. Bourassa, however, believed that the provinces should be autonomous. That is, he believed they should have complete control over their own affairs. This would ensure protection for French-Canadian rights in Quebec, the homeland of French-Canadian culture.

Other Quebec nationalists, however, believed separation from Canada was the only way to preserve French language and culture. Any union with the English-speaking majority meant the French language and culture could be threatened. Meanwhile, other French-speaking groups outside Quebec continued to struggle for recognition of their rights within their provinces or regions.

In the early 1900s, a number of international issues fuelled the debate over imperialism and French-Canadian nationalism in Canada.

Debate Over the Boer War

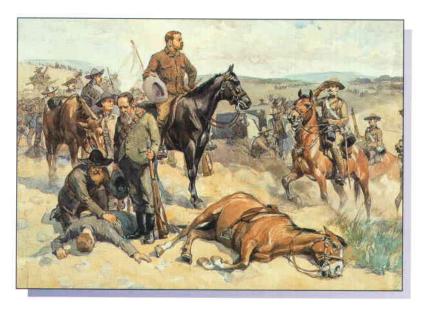
When the **Boer War** broke out in 1899, it created a crisis in Canada that centred on the issue of imperialism. The Boer War was fought in South Africa. Many British settlers had immigrated to South Africa and were moving into the areas where gold and diamonds had been discovered. Trouble developed between the British settlers and the Boers, who were the descendants of the early Dutch colonists. As



The Choquette Farm, Beloeil, 1901, by Ozias Leduc

Ozias Leduc (1864-1955) was one of Quebec's most important early twentieth-century artists. He was known for his landscapes, portraits, still lifes, and religious paintings. Though the value of his work was not recognized until after his death, he had a major influence on other Quebec artists.

- 1. Describe the setting and the features of the house in this scene.
- 2. What is the figure in the painting doing?
- 3. What view does this painting give of Quebec life in the early twentieth century?



A painting shows Boer troops surrendering to Canadian forces during the Boer War.

tensions increased, the Boers declared war on Britain. While the war did not directly concern Canada, the British government asked Canada to send soldiers. This military support would prove that the British Empire stood together in times of trouble. English-Canadian imperialists were anxious for Canada to take part. But while many English Canadians said "Yes" to the British government's request, many French Canadians said "No!" Quebec politicians such as Henri Bourassa argued strongly that Canada should not get involved in Britain's imperialist wars.

Laurier tried to provide a compromise solution that would satisfy both English

The first Canadian navy recruiting poster 1911. Why was Canada's navy a source of conflict in the country?



and French Canadians. Canada would not send an official army to South Africa. However, Canada would equip and transport 1000 volunteers. These volunteers would be part of the British forces once they arrived in South Africa. In the end, Canada sent about 7300 volunteers to South Africa and spent \$2.8 million in their support.

Laurier's compromise did not fully satisfy anyone. Imperialists felt that Canada had let Britain down. Many French-Canadian nationalists felt Laurier had done too much. In spite of the differences in attitude to Laurier's compromise solution, his government was returned to power in the election of 1900.



The Naval Crisis

By 1909, another crisis arose. The possibility of a war between Britain and Germany was very real. Britain and Germany were in a race to have the largest navy in the world. The British wanted Canada and other colonies to contribute funds to help build more ships for the British navy. Without help from its colonies, Britain would soon fall behind in the naval race with Germany.

Should Canada add to the British navy, or should Canada develop its own navy? Again Laurier offered a compromise—the Naval Service Bill. Canada would have a navy of its own under the control of the Canadian government. In an emergency, the Canadian navy could be placed under British control with the consent of Canada's parliament. Service in the navy would be voluntary. Five cruisers and six destroyers would be built immediately. Canadian naval bases would be established at Esquimalt, British Columbia, and Halifax, Nova Scotia.

A storm of protest greeted Laurier's Naval Service Bill. Bourassa and some French-Canadian nationalists complained that this policy meant Canadians could be sent anywhere at any time to fight Britain's imperialist wars. The Conservatives, led by Robert Borden, also attacked the bill. They thought Canada should make an outright contribution to the British navy. The Conservatives accused Laurier of setting up a "tin-pot Canadian navy" when an immediate contribution to the British navy was urgently needed. Laurier agreed that when Britain is at war, Canada is also at war. However, he made it clear that Canada would decide how much it would participate in future wars.

Alaska Boundary Dispute

In the early years of the new century, Canada also came into conflict with its southern neighbour, the United States. A dispute developed over the border between Alaska and Canada. The United States had purchased Alaska from Russia in 1867. The deal included the "panhandle," the strip of coastline extending south from Alaska as far as Prince of Wales Island off the coast of British Columbia. The wording of the treaty was fuzzy, but no one cared very much until the discovery of gold in the Yukon.

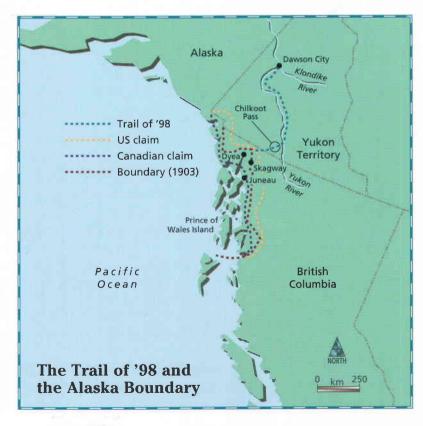
During the Gold Rush in 1898, thousands of prospectors flooded into the Klondike area of the Yukon Territory. Suddenly, the ownership of the land through which they passed became very important. Gold seekers needed outfits and supplies. Both Canadian and American merchants wanted to take advantage of this new business.

The Americans said that the ports of Skagway, Dyea, and Juneau belonged to them. The Canadians argued that these ports belonged to Canada. Whoever owned these ports could charge customs

taxes on all goods going into the area and all the gold going out.

The Canadians argued that the boundary should be measured from the mountains nearest the ocean. This boundary would give Canada direct access to the Pacific Ocean by way of several deep inlets. Gold could be brought out of the Yukon Territory and supplies brought in without passing through American ports. The Americans were determined to keep as much land as they could. President Theodore Roosevelt threatened to send troops to Alaska to protect the American claim.

Eventually the dispute was submitted to a court of six judges. Three judges were appointed by the United States and three were chosen by Britain. Two of the judges appointed by the British government were Canadians; the third was Lord Alverstone, an Englishman.





SPOTLIGHT ON ...

James Naismith

The game of basketball was created by a Canadian, Dr. James Naismith. In 1891, Naismith was teaching physical education at the YMCA college at Springfield, Massachusetts. He was looking for a competitive indoor team sport for his students to play between the baseball and hockey seasons. He set out deliberately to invent a new sport. The ball used was a soccer ball. The nets were peach baskets nailed to the gymnasium balcony. That was the beginning of basketball.

In 1892, the first rule book was published. There were 13 basic rules. The dribble was not part of the original game. When players tired of climbing up to the balcony to retrieve the ball each time someone scored, Naismith cut the bottoms out of the peach baskets. In 1900, the iron ring and the bottomless net replaced the peach baskets.

The game caught on quickly. In 1894, the Montreal YMCA started its first basketball house



league and by 1900 hosted junior, intermediate, and senior leagues. By 1907, the Canadian Amateur Athletic Union appointed a Dominion Basketball Committee as part of its structure.

James Naismith, the creator of the new game, was a modest man. He was born in 1861 on a farm west of Ottawa near Almonte. He earned university degrees in medicine, theology, and physical education but never sought fame and fortune from his new inven-

tion. There is a school named after James Naismith in Almonte, Ontario, but there is not even a roadside plaque at the farm where he was born and raised. His memory is best preserved at Springfield, Massachusetts, site of the Basketball Hall of Fame.

- 1. Many people think of basketball as an American sport. Why do you think this is so?
- 2. Are there sports that people think of as particularly Canadian? Which ones? Why?

After a full month of discussion, the tribunal decided 4 to 2 against Canada. Lord Alverstone had sided with the Americans. Britain was facing growing problems with Germany in Europe and knew it would need American support if a war developed with Germany. Therefore, Britain was not willing to risk losing its friendship with the United States.

When the decision was announced, Canadians were outraged. Many thought they had been bullied by their more powerful southern neighbour. At the same time, Canadians felt bitter resentment toward Britain and Lord Alverstone. It appeared that Britain had let Canada

down in this dispute with the United States. The reaction in Vancouver was so hostile that the *Victoria Colonist* reported on 23 October 1903 some citizens had pledged "they will not sing 'God save the King' again until England has justified itself in the eyes of Canada."

In 1909, an **International Joint Commission** was set up to settle peacefully any future disputes between Canada and the United States. This permanent commission would deal with any disagreements over boundary waters or rivers along the Canadian-American border. Though this commission would help to solve future controversies in a friendly

manner, Canadian resentment toward both the United States and Britain remained. Canadians were becoming more determined that Canada must make its own decisions in the future.

The Reciprocity Issue

A fourth issue that faced the Laurier government was reciprocity. **Reciprocity** is an agreement between two countries to trade certain products without tariffs (taxes). In 1854, the British North American colonies had signed a Reciprocity Treaty with the United States, but the United States had ended the Treaty in 1866. A great deal of trade business had been lost. Canadian farmers and business people wanted a new agreement.

In 1910, a large group of western farmers demonstrated on Parliament Hill in Ottawa. They demanded lower tariffs on goods traded between Canada and the United States. High tariffs, they complained, were causing high prices for farm products and materials. Tariffs can help to protect home industries by limiting foreign competition, but they can also mean that prices on the protected home goods rise.

The farmers in western Canada had a legitimate complaint. They were paying eastern railway companies a lot of money to ship their grain and supplies. They were charged high interest rates on money they borrowed from banks. When they visited friends or relatives across the border, they were annoyed to discover that farm machinery cost half as much in the United States as it did in Canada. High costs were blamed on Ontario and Quebec manufacturers who grew rich because tariffs kept out foreign competition.

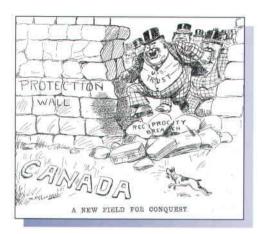
Laurier's response to the farmers' complaints was to work out a reciprocity

agreement with the United States in 1911. Products of Canadian farms, fisheries, forests, and mines would be allowed into the United States free of tariffs. Taxes on American items coming into Canada, such as farm implements, automobiles, building materials, and canned goods would be lowered. It was the kind of tariff deal that every Canadian government since Confederation had been trying to make with the United States.

When news of the proposed agreement became known, the leader of the Conservative party, Robert Borden, became so discouraged that he wanted to resign. It seemed impossible that the Laurier Liberals could be defeated in the next election. But Borden was persuaded to stay and fight.

Then things began to go wrong. Clifford Sifton, a Liberal cabinet minister, was opposed to reciprocity. He joined other wealthy Liberals in fighting the idea. Business people, manufacturers, and bankers of both political parties were afraid that cheaper American goods in Canada would put them out of business. Canadian railway builders, such as Canadian Pacific Railways' president William van Horne, were worried. For years Canadians had been building eastwest railway lines. Now they feared the railway business would be ruined if trade suddenly became north-south. Canadian nationalists thought that Canadian natural resources should be kept at home and not shipped across the border. Anti-American feelings were still strong in Canada because of the decision made over the Alaska boundary dispute.

President Taft of the United States forecast that Canada was at the parting of the ways with Britain. A prominent American politician named Champ Clark declared full support for reciprocity, saying "I hope to see the day when the American flag will float over every square mile of the British What does this cartoon suggest about some Canadians' attitudes to reciprocity with the United States?



North American possessions, clear to the North Pole."

That was enough ammunition for the Conservatives. They waved the British flag in every campaign speech during the **election of 1911**. They preached an anti-American policy. They warned that if reciprocity passed, it would mean a political as well as economic takeover of Canada by the United States. Borden campaigned with the slogan "No truck or trade with the Yankees."

The headlines of 22 September 1911 told the election results: "Laurier's government goes down to defeat" (*The Globe*), "Conservatives sweep country, reciprocity killed" (*The Mail and Empire*).

Two issues were central in the Liberals' defeat: the Naval Service Bill and the reciprocity deal with the United States. French Canadians did not want to become involved in British imperialist disputes. English Canadians did not want to be taken over by American economic interests. Anti-imperialists such Bourassa ioined forces with the Conservatives to defeat the Liberals. Neither Laurier's personal leadership nor his program could save the Liberals from defeat in 1911. Sir Wilfrid Laurier was never again to be prime minister of Canada. He died on 17 February 1919.

During Laurier's time in office, however, Canada had taken some steps toward greater control over its foreign affairs.

- The Canadian parliament would decide what Canada's contribution in troops, etc. would be in any imperial wars.
- There were no longer any British warships in Halifax harbour. Canada had its own navy.
- In 1909, Canada set up its own Department of External Affairs, though it did not yet have a great deal of international influence.

FAST FORWARD

Canadians have debated the issue of reciprocity or free trade with the United States more than once in the twentieth century. In 1911, the issue spelled the defeat of Wilfrid Laurier and the Liberal government in Canada. In 1988, it was again the most important issue in the federal election. This time it was the Conservatives under Brian Mulroney who were proposing free trade. Mulroney and the Conservatives won the election and the Free Trade Agreement (FTA) became law on 1 January 1989. By the late 1980s, nations around the world were moving toward greater free trade and the United States had also far surpassed Britain as Canada's major world trading partner. Today Canadians are still debating the effects of the Free Trade Agreement on the country.



Developing Skills: Interpreting Political Cartoons

The art of political cartoons began early in Canada. By the 1890s, political cartoons were regular features in Canadian newspapers and magazines. One of Canada's most noted cartoonists was J. W. Bengough. He made his mark with his caricatures of Sir John A. Macdonald in his weekly magazine *Grip*. Caricature involves exaggerating certain characteristics of people to create humour. Through humour, the cartoons made statements about significant issues or events of the day.

At the turn of the century, political cartoons were very popular. They not only poked fun at politics and politicians, they helped people put issues into perspective. Cartoons often accompanied the editorials that expressed opinions on key issues.

Political cartoons are still popular today. They appear in newspapers across the country. Leading cartoonists today choose their own subject matter and make their own comment on it, rather than illustrating the editorials.

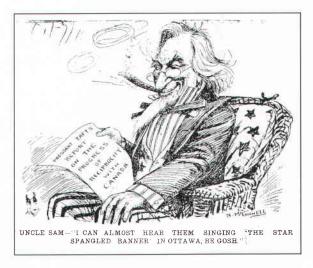
Cartoons can be fun to interpret. When you look at political cartoons, ask yourself the following questions.

- Does the cartoon have a title? If so, what does it mean?
- What issue or event is referred to in the cartoon?
- 3. What is the setting? Describe what you see.
- 4. Where and when does the action in the cartoon take place?
- 5. Who are the people or figures in the cartoon? What is their mood? What are they saying?
- 6. What other objects, symbols, or words are in the cartoon? What do they mean?
- 7. What comparisons, if any, are being made?
- 8. Who or what is the cartoonist poking fun at?

- 9. What is the message of the cartoon? Summarize it in one or two sentences.
- 10. Does the cartoonist get the message across effectively? Why or why not?
- 11. How does the cartoonist create humour? What techniques are used to get the message across?
- 12. Does the cartoonist's viewpoint differ from yours? Explain.

Try It!

1. Now you can try to interpret a political cartoon yourself. The following cartoon appeared at the time that reciprocity was being discussed. Using the questions outlined above, interpret what the cartoon is saying.



- 2. Interpret the cartoon on page 48 of this chapter.
- 3. Clip modern political cartoons from your local newspaper. Use the same questions to interpret these cartoons. Discuss similarities and differences between these modern cartoons and those from the early twentieth century.

S Canada and the Global Economy

At the turn of the twentieth century, the world seemed to be shrinking. Oceangoing steamships moved goods and people faster than ever before. Steam-powered trains, rather than horses and carts, were delivering goods over land to cities and ports. Letters, which used to take weeks to arrive from overseas, could be sent by telegraph in minutes. Long-distance telephone calls made voice contact possible with customers far away. The world was becoming more interconnnected. At the same time, the world's economy was becoming more interdependent.

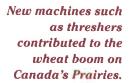
In the United States, Britain, and Europe, cities and industries were growing rapidly. They needed raw materials for their factories and food for urban workers. Canada had large supplies of wheat, timber, and minerals. Canadians began to develop the country's natural resources and expand

its manufacturing industries to meet the demand in the world market. The years 1900 to 1912 were boom years for Canada's economy and for Canadian world trade.

Resource Development

In Canada's economy at the turn of the century, "wheat was king." Between 1901 and 1911, wheat production quintupled. It was called "the Canadian economic miracle." A number of factors contributed to the wheat boom. A large number of immigrants took up farming on the Prairies and began to grow wheat. They worked with recently invented, more efficient farm machinery such as the chilled steel plough and threshing machines. New strains of wheat that could withstand the tough prairie climate had also been discovered. Finally, prices paid for wheat were soaring on the world market. Wheat became Canada's number one export.

Mining also expanded rapidly. Discovery of gold in the Klondike region of the Yukon started a gold rush in 1898.





The Technological Edge

MAROUIS WHEAT-"DISCOVERY OF THE CENTURY"

Canada is known around the world for its prairie wheat. It all began in the 1840s when a few Canadians began experimenting with new strains of wheat. They were looking for a plant that would mature before it was struck by the early prairie frosts. A farmer in Ontario, David Fife, successfully grew a very hardy new strain from some seeds he had received from a friend in Glasgow, Scotland. It almost didn't happen because David Fife's cow broke into the garden and was about to eat the experimental plants. Jane Fife shooed the cow out just in time. The wheat became known as Red Fife. Red Fife matured 10 days earlier than other kinds of wheat, produced a very high yield, and made excellent bread. Soon prairie farmers were growing the new strain, but it was still sometimes hit by early frosts.

Experiments were also being carried out at the government's Central Experimental Farm in Ottawa. The man in charge, Charles Saunders, was quiet, studious, and actually more interested in being a musician than a chemist. Nevertheless, he followed his father's wishes and took the job at the Experimental Farm. It turned out that his studious attention to detail and quiet perseverance served him well.

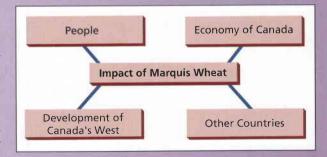
After years of painstaking experiments, Saunders crossed Red Fife wheat with a variety from India called Red Calcutta. It grew into a healthy strain that Saunders called Marquis. Marquis wheat was called "the discovery of the century." It was even better for the Canadian season than Red Fife because it took just 100 days to ripen. The most northern areas of the Prairies could be opened for farming. By 1920, 90 per cent of the wheat grown on the Canadian Prairies was Marquis.

Charles Saunders was knighted for his achievement in 1934. At his death, the London Daily



Express wrote: "He added more wealth to this country than any other man." With the development of Marguis wheat, Canada became one of the greatest wheat-producing nations of the world.

1. Copy the web diagram below. For each topic in the web, outline the effects Marguis wheat would have.



2. Do you think Marquis wheat is "the discovery of the century?" Why or why not? What other discoveries do you think might deserve the title?

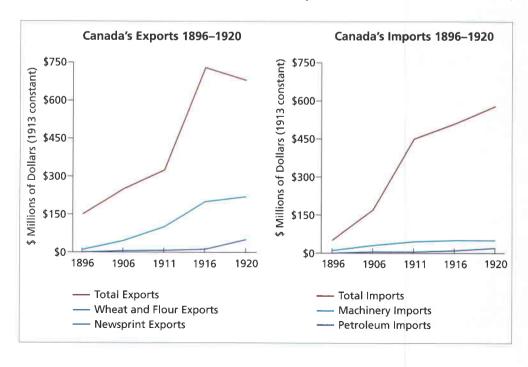
It was just the beginning. Canada was a country rich in minerals, and mines opened up across the country. Railway lines to remote areas and new technologies for extracting ore helped to fuel the mining boom.

In southern British Columbia, copper, lead, zinc, silver, and gold were discovered. Giant smelters and refineries sprang up to process the ore. In northern Ontario, the little settlement of Cobalt grew into a town of 10 000 by 1910 after silver was discovered there. Over 40 silver mines opened around the town. Sudbury, where major nickel and copper deposits were found, was also well established by 1910. In time, increased use of nickel made Sudbury the "Nickel Capital of the World." Similar resource towns grew up in other areas of northern Ontario, Alberta, and British Columbia. Resource towns were often remote and dependent on a single resource industry such as mining or forestry. But life bustled in these small towns. Many soon had a movie house. dances, lodges, and many "occasions" for social get-togethers.

The forest industry developed most rapidly in British Columbia and the eastern provinces, especially Quebec. Douglas fir, spruce, and cedar from British Columbia's forests made excellent lumber to build homes, barns, and even grain elevators on the Prairies. Huge supplies of timber were also used for railway tracks, hydro and telephone poles, and mine shafts. Quebec and Ontario had large areas of softwood. Pulp and paper mills grew up quickly to process the wood. Most wood pulp and paper went to the United States, which was demanding large quantities of cheap newsprint. By 1915, pulp and paper made up one-third of Canada's exports.

New Industries and Corporations

The large-scale development and export of natural resources was becoming a major characteristic of Canada's economy. Industrial development, however, was also getting off the ground. Foreign investors, mostly from Britain and the United States,



began pouring money into Canada's industries. Canada's growing population meant there would be a strong home market for new products. People were demanding and buying manufactured goods. The investors were ready to take advantage of the opportunities. British investors generally provided loans for new enterprises, such as railway development. American investors preferred to set up companies they owned directly. American ownership of industries in Canada, however, did not become a major issue until later in the century.

Canadian factories pumped out clothing, shoes, canned foods, tools, pulp and paper, and farm machines. A boom in railway building created a demand for steel and iron. Two new transcontinental railways were started and thousands of kilometres of track were laid in branch lines. Steel foundries were established to meet the growing demand.

New factories needed cheap power. Canada had the advantage of developing cheap hydroelectric power. Hydro power, or "white coal" as it was called, was much more efficient than generating electricity from coal. The Niagara Falls generating plant opened in 1896. Other generating stations were built to supply power for homes and expanding factories. Power lines soon criss-crossed the countryside.

As new industries developed, so did major new business enterprises. In 1906, the Hydro-Electric Commission of Ontario was established. It was the first publicly-owned electrical utility in the world. By 1923, it was the largest utility in the world. Other provinces also developed government-owned utilities. These giant enterprises needed the vast amounts of financing that governments could provide. They also ensured that people had access to electricity at a reasonable price.

Other giant companies were formed

A Booming Economy

Canadian wheat exports in 1891: 54 430 tonnes Canadian wheat exports in 1916: 4 000 000 tonnes

Value of goods manufactured in Canadian factories 1900: \$215 000 000 Value of goods manufactured in Canadian factories 1910: \$564 000 000 By 1913, Canada ranked third after the United States and Britain in output of manufactured goods per person.

Railway lines in 1900: 29 000 km Railway lines in 1920: 63 000 km

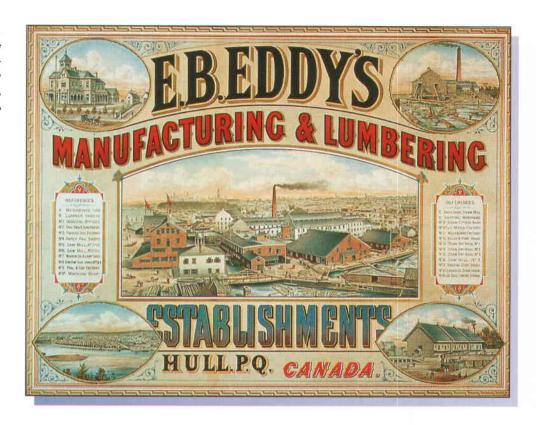
In 1913, Canada had more railways per population than any other country in the world.

through mergers, that is, the joining of several smaller firms. Many were corporations, large companies owned by a number of investors. This was a major change, since most factories and businesses before this time were small and family-owned. In 1910, Max Aitken (later Lord Beaverbrook) created the Steel Company of Canada by merging a number of small firms. He also formed the Canada Cement Company. Between 1909 and 1912, 58 giant corporations were created in Canada. Many of them are still household names today, including Imperial Oil, General Electric, Maple Leaf Milling, Algoma Steel, and Dominion Textiles.

The Canadian Manufacturers' Association

To many business people at the time, developing new industries and businesses was part of nation-building. The Steel Company of Canada president said: "We not only manufacture steel, we manufacture nationalism." Canadian manufacturers were convinced Canada's future lay in industrial expansion. They wanted to see Canada's natural resources processed at home, rather than in foreign factories. Manufacturing, they believed, could be as

Poster for the E.B.
Eddy Manufacuring
Company. What
products did
this company
manufacture?



important to Canada as it was to Britain, the United States, and the growing industrial powers of Europe.

In 1871, a number of Canadian industrialists formed the Canadian Manufacturers' Association (CMA). Its goal was to actively promote manufacturing in Canada. Members were strong supporters of John A. Macdonald's National Policy introduced in 1878. The policy had introduced tariffs (taxes) on imported goods. The tariffs increased the cost of imports and encouraged people to buy products made in Canada. In this way, it was hoped tariffs would foster the growth of Canadian manufacturing industries and protect them from foreign competition. By the turn of the century, Canadian industrial production was expanding steadily.

In 1899, the CMA became a national organization and began actively promoting the products of Canadian factories in other

countries. Delegates travelled to trade fairs and industrial exhibitions around the world. The CMA also represented the concerns of Canadian manufacturers to the government on issues such as trade, taxation, and policies affecting workers. Members supported Workers' Compensation programs in many provinces, for example. Workers' Compensation guaranteed workers injured on the job at least some of their wages (usually up to 75 per cent). Ontario was the first to adopt it in 1914. The CMA continued to represent Canadian manufacturers throughout the century. In 1996 it joined with the Canadian Exporter's Association and the organization became known as the Alliance of Manufacturers and Exporters Canada.

Regional Inequalities

To the world, Canada was emerging as a prosperous new nation. At home, howev-

er, there were concerns that Canada's economic development was not evenly distributed across the country. Businesses, manufacturing, and hydroelectric power were concentrated in Ontario and Quebec. So were Canada's major banks, which provided financing for new enterprises. Central Canada (Ontario and Quebec) was quickly developing into Canada's **industrial heartland**. The region was also the most populated part

of Canada and the base of the federal government. The Maritimes, the Prairie Provinces, British Columbia, and the North were a great distance from the economic and political centre of the country. They developed very different economies. This issue of economic inequalities among Canada's regions would prove to be a thorny one throughout the twentieth century.

Regional Economies Central Canada: The Maritimes **British Columbia** The Prairie Provinces **Ontario and Quebec** · traditional shipbuilding, • timber, salmon, minerals · economy based largely · largest, most concentrated population of the mining, lumbering are key resources on farming and ranching industries declining (e.g., regions (therefore has · fish processing, wood (especially wheat wooden sailing ships products, pulp and paper production) ready access to large are main industries Winnipeg only main workforce and people to being replaced by iron and steel vessels) distance from markets in manufacturing centre buy goods) · has advantage of access · manufacturing (steel, Central Canada, high · farmers face high freight to cheap hydroelectric textiles) overshadowed transportation costs, rates for shipping grain to relatively small popula-Central Canada power by larger industries in tion hinder manufacturing · protective tariffs increase home of Canada's major Central Canada · long distance to markets development prices of farm machinery banks, which provide in Central Canada and · most pulp and paper and and materials financing the West and high wood products are sent · wheat boom is · rich in natural resources to American markets (minerals, forests, farms, transportation costs dependent on world hydro power) and close to hinder development markets industrial heartland of · small population, limited resources make expan-United States, a major sion of factories difficult market for Canada's resources · some Maritimers leave to National Policy of 1878 look for jobs, new opportunities in Central fostered east-west trade Canada and the West and development of manufacturing in Central Canada experienced most industrial growth in early part of twentieth century (e.g., automobile, steel, textile industries) Note: In the North at this time, there was some lumbering and mining, but the region was largely undeveloped.



Developing Skills: Using Primary & Secondary Sources

In every area of study, people use tools to do their work, find information, and draw conclusions about what they find. Geographers use maps, for example. Biologists use microscopes and specimens. The tools historians use are primary and secondary sources.

Primary sources are first-hand evidence, the raw material of history. They include accounts from people who experienced an event in the past, historical photographs, paintings or other works of art from the past, and artifacts such as tools farmers used.

Secondary sources are second-hand accounts of the past. They include biographies, history books, and web pages written about past events. Secondary sources are created by people who did not actually experience the past events. Their accounts are based on evidence from primary sources, and often include what they think, believe, or conclude about past events.

Distinguishing Between Primary and Secondary Sources

Try this exercise. In your notebook, make two columns. Label one "Primary Sources" and the other "Secondary Sources." Place the sources listed below in the appropriate columns.

- a) a photograph of Louis Riel's trial
- b) the diary of Henri Bourassa
- c) a television documentary on the development of Marquis wheat
- d) an article on the Alaska Boundary Dispute from the Canadian Encyclopedia CD-ROM
- e) a letter by Wilfrid Laurier to United States' President Taft about the reciprocity issue
- f) a photocopy of the front page of a Toronto newspaper dated 22 September 1911 found via the Internet on Newscan
- g) a Canadian historian's account of the 1911 federal election, written in 1999

- h) the web site of Canada's National Museum of Science and Technology
- i) statistics on the number of immigrants who came to Canada each year between 1900 and 1913
- j) the map of the Alaska Boundary Dispute shown on page 45 of this book
- k) a poster to recruit men for Canada's navy in 1911
- I) The Choquette Farm, Beloeil, 1901, a painting by Ozias Leduc

A Closer Examination

Once you have identified primary and secondary sources, examine them closely. They may include facts, opinions, or arguments.

Facts are exact and specific. They are things we know have taken place, and we can prove they are true. For example, it is a fact that Wilfrid Laurier was defeated in the 1911 election. Evidence such as newspaper reports from the day after the election prove this fact.

Opinions are conclusions, views, thoughts, or feelings. They are not exact and are not proven. Opinions may or may not be based on facts. For example, it may be your opinion that Laurier was a great prime minister. Your opinion may or may not be true.

Arguments are explanations or reasons that support or reject a viewpoint or opinion. Arguments are based on facts. They attempt to explain why an event happened and draw some conclusions. Statements in arguments often contain clue words such as "because," "since," and "therefore." For example, you could argue that Laurier lost the 1911 election because he supported reciprocity. Your argument would outline a number of specific reasons and facts to support your point of view.

Select a primary or secondary source and identify the facts, opinions and arguments.

Activities

Understand Facts and Concepts

1. Add these new terms to your Factfile.

imperialism nationalism Manitoba Schools Act 1890 Regulation 17 (Ontario 1910) Boer War Naval Service Bill

Alaska Boundary Dispute

International Joint Commission
Reciprocity
election of 1911
Marquis wheat
corporations
Canadian Manufacturers' Association
industrial heartland

- 2. What were some advantages for Canada of belonging to the British Empire? What were some disadvantages?
- 3. Outline the major reasons why a French-Canadian nationalist movement gained strength in Quebec around the turn of the century.
- 4. Identify the major problems that caused conflicts in the first decade of the twentieth century:
 - a) between French and English Canadians
 - b) between Canada and the United States
 - c) between Canada and Britain.
- 5. At the turn of the twentieth century, Canada's economic development was not evenly distributed across the various regions of the country. Find evidence to support this statement.

Think and Communicate

- 6. Work in discussion groups to answer the following questions. Keep notes and compare your ideas with those of other groups.
 - a) What were the causes of the Boer War?
 - b) How did English and French Canadians react to the British request for Canadian assistance in South Africa? Why? How might Canadians from other ethnocultural groups have reacted? Why?
 - c) Make a list of the possible solutions open to the Laurier government. What might have been the outcome of each solution?
 - d) Explain and evaluate the eventual compromise worked out by Prime Minister Laurier.
- 7. a) The Naval Service Bill has hit the headlines of Canadian newspapers. You are newspaper reporters. Interview your classmates for statements on the Bill. Class members take the role of a French-Canadian nationalist, an imperialist, or a Canadian nationalist. Get an opinion from each of these points of view. Then write a short article for your newspaper.

- b) Follow up with a discussion of this question: Was the Bill a step forward for Canada's independence?
- 8. Role play a debate on the statement: "Reciprocity is a good policy for Canada in 1911." Choose roles from the list below and prepare your arguments. Then stage a public meeting in the class to debate the issue.
 - i) president of the CPR
 - ii) a Saskatchewan wheat farmer
 - iii) a fisher from Prince Edward Island
 - iv) an Ontario manufacturer of farm machinery
 - v) a woman working in the home
 - vi) an owner of a meat canning factory in Quebec
- vii) a worker on the docks of British Columbia
- viii) a worker in a Canadian steel company
- ix) a pro-British imperialist
- x) a wealthy Conservative business person
- xi) a French-Canadian nationalist.
- 9. Hold the election of 1911 in your class. Create ballots and have a secret vote. Follow up with a discussion of the results. Have individual students explain why they voted as they did.
- 10. a) Create posters or pamphlets that the Canadian Manufacturers' Association might have used in the early 1900s to promote Canadian industries around the world. Do you agree that promoting industry was also promoting nationalism? Explain.
 - b) Find out more about the Worker's Compensation program introduced in 1914. Why was it needed? Describe working conditions in factories in the early 1900s.

Apply Your Knowledge

- 11. Slogans are short catchy phrases used to express a strong idea or feeling. In groups, create slogans that might have been written by each of the following in the first decade of the twentieth century.
 - a) a French-Canadian nationalist
 - b) an English-Canadian nationalist
 - c) a Canadian imperialist
 - d) a British imperialist
 - e) an American nationalist
- 12. Create your own political cartoon. Focus on an issue or a character from this chapter or from current events. Think about what you want the cartoon to say and how you can say it simply and clearly. Then compile a class cartoon portfolio and invite comments on the cartoons.
- 13. Imagine you are an investor in the early 1900s. Develop a short portfolio showing where you would invest your money in the Canadian economy (in which industries, areas of the country, etc.). Justify your choices.

14. Work in groups. You are documentary filmmakers. Interview people from the Maritimes, Central Canada, the Prairie provinces, British Columbia, and the North today (students can role play these people). Get their opinions on how the economy of their regions developed in the early 1900s. How would this have affected their lives in 1900? Is it still affecting their lives today?

Get to the Source

15. Read this address by Wilfrid Laurier at Saint John, New Brunswick, during the 1911 election campaign:

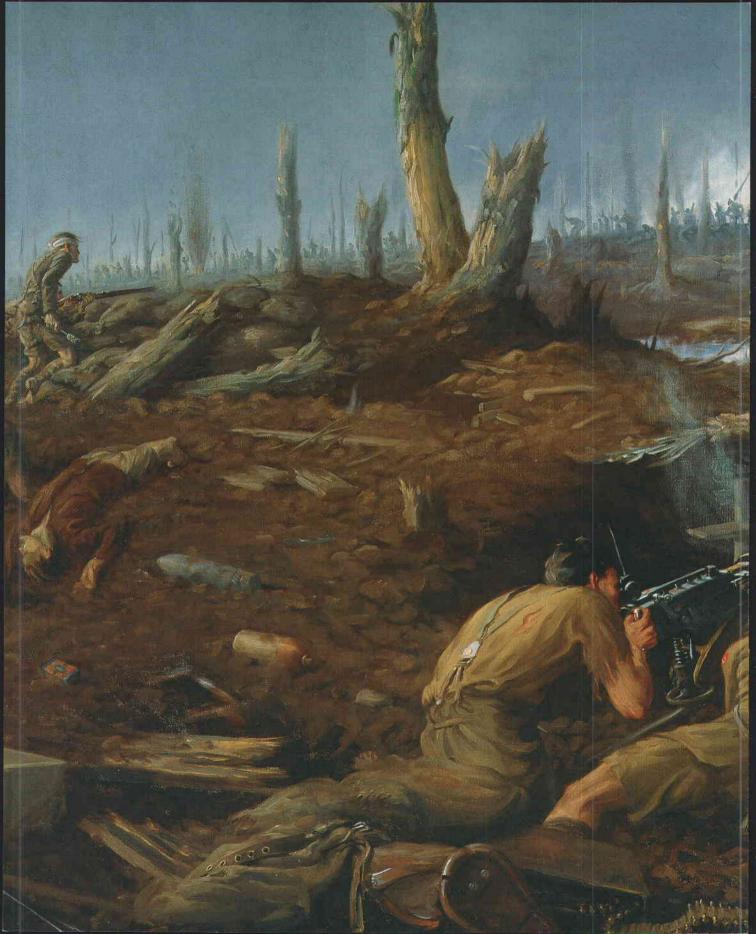
I am branded in Quebec as a traitor to the French, and in Ontario as a traitor to the English ... In Quebec, I am attacked as an imperialist, and in Ontario as an anti-imperialist, I am neither. I am a Canadian. Canada has been the inspiration of my life. I have had before me as a pillar of fire by night and a pillar of cloud by day a policy of true Canadianism, of moderation, of conciliation. I have followed it constantly since 1896, and I now appeal with confidence to the whole Canadian people to uphold me in this policy of sound Canadianism which makes for the greatness of our country and of the Empire.

Source: O.D. Skelton, *The Life and Letters of Sir Wilfrid Laurier*, vol. 2, Oxford University Press, 1922, pp. 379-380.

- a) Why would some people in Quebec brand Laurier as a traitor to the French?
- b) Why was Laurier attacked in Ontario as a traitor to the English?
- c) Describe Laurier's policy of "true Canadianism." Find examples from Laurier's policies that support this definition.
- 16. In 1903, F. H. Turnock, a Canadian journalist, discussed the anti-British feeling caused by the Alaska Boundary Dispute.

The callousness, the selfishness, and the bad faith with which Canadians consider Britain has treated Canada in this matter will long rankle in the breasts of Canadians. It is bound to affect Canada's destiny. What the ultimate outcome may be, it is perhaps too early yet to predict. But it will sensibly loosen the tie which binds Canada to Great Britain. It will quench the spirit of Imperialism which has for some time been growing in Canada. Canadians now realize how little their services in the cause of the [British] Empire have been appreciated.

- a) Account for the anti-British feeling triggered by the Alaska Boundary Dispute.
- b) What effect do you think the dispute had on Canada's struggle for national identity?







CANADA AND WORLD WAR I

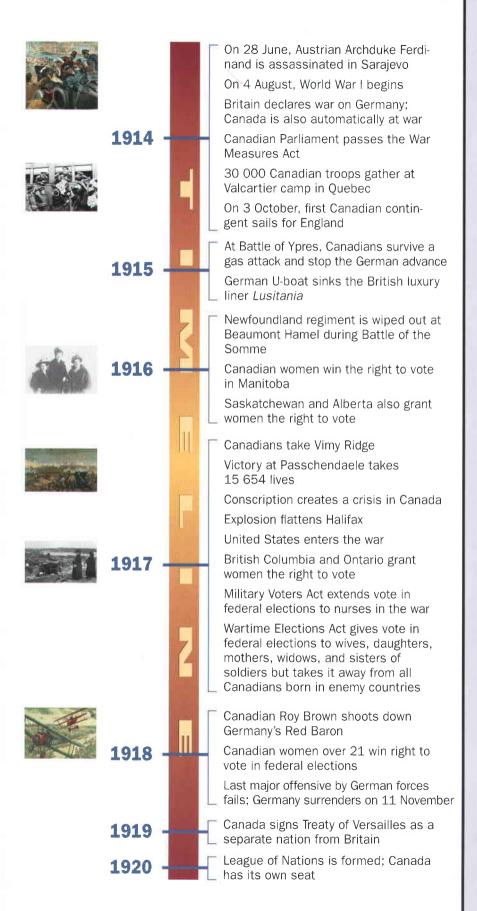
1914-1919

he twentieth century has seen two major wars fought at points all over the globe: World War I (1914-1918) and World War II (1939-1945). People called World War I "the war to end all wars." This war was unlike any other waged before it. It was fought with modern, deadly weapons including machine guns, poison gas, tanks, submarines, and airplanes. Battles took place on land, in the air, and at sea. It was "total war" in the sense that it involved citizens almost as much as soldiers. In the end, the loss of lives was horrific. The death toll was the highest of any war in history, before or since.

More than 600 000 Canadians served in World War I. The vast majority went as volunteers with little training. But by the end of the war, they had distinguished themselves in battle and made an important contribution to the Allied victory. At home, people rolled bandages and packed food parcels for the troops. They worked in munitions factories and on farms that supplied vast quantities of food for the Allied countries overseas.

By the end of the war, Canada had grown economically. It had also gained a greater degree of independence from Britain and a new sense of nationhood. But the cost was high. Over 60 000 Canadians lost their lives. Memories of death and hardship from this war haunted people for years afterward.

- The painting by Canadian artist Kenneth Forbes shows Canadian troops at Sanctuary Wood near Ypres in 1916. Describe the landscape of the battlefield.
- 2. How are Canadian soldiers attacking? How are they defending themselves? What weapons are being used?
- 3. How does the artist show both the bravery of the soldiers and the horrors of war in this painting?



Strands & Topics

Communities: Local. National, and Global



Canadian Identity

- · many different ethnocultural and racial groups make contributions to the war effort at home and on the battle fronts
- Canadians take pride in Canada's military contributions, especially victory at Vimy Ridge
- · Canadian war artists, photographers, and reporters record Canada's contribution
- · Canada gains a new sense of nationhood and international recognition



External Forces Shaping Canada's Policies

- · European nationalism, imperialism, and militarism sweep Canada into World War I
- Britain controls Canada's foreign policy; when Britain declares war, Canada is also automatically at war



French-English Relations

- French and English have different feelings of commitment to the war
- · Sam Hughes's policies cause controversy
- differences over conscription cause long-lasting bitter feelings



War, Peace, and Security

- · Canada enters the war as part of the British Empire
- · Canadians win key victories at Ypres and Vimy Ridge: victory at Vimy Ridge turns the tide in favour of the Allies
- · Canadian pilots play a major role in the air war
- · at sea, Canadians participate in convoys getting supplies to the Allies

 Canadians from many different ethnocultural and racial communities contribute to the war on the battle front and at home

Change and Continuity



Population Patterns

· many men go off to fight; war casualties are high



Impact of Science and Technology

 technological developments are made in aircraft, tanks, submarines, machine guns, poison gas, and other war weapons



Canada's International Status and Foreign Policy

- · Canada's military contribution gains international respect
- · Canada participates in the peace talks as a separate nation from Britain and gains its own seat in the League of Nations

Citizenship and Heritage



Social and Political Movements

- · women gain the vote in several provinces and in federal elections
- · Aboriginal, Asian, and Black women do not have the right to vote
- · pacifists face hostility and resentment during the war



Contributions of **Individuals**

 Nellie McClung plays a major role in the women's suffrage movement

- Prime Minister Robert Borden takes Canada through World War I
- Canada has many war heroes including Billy Bishop and Sir Arthur Currie
- Max Aitken is responsible for Canadian war records and art

Social, Economic, and **Political Structures**



The Economy

- war creates an economic boom and industrial development
- women enter the workforce



The Changing Role of Government

- War Measures Act is introduced in 1914
- civil rights of "enemy aliens" are restricted and thousands are interned
- government sells Victory Bonds and introduces income tax to finance the war
- · conscription is introduced 1917
- · government controls and regulations during the war affect everyday lives of Canadians

Methods of Historical Inquiry



Skill Development

- mind mapping causes
- recognizing and analyzing bias
- · researching using computerstored information
- · preparing a research report
- interpreting and comparing maps

Activities

pp. 79–81, 104–106, 127–129

Expectations

At the end of this unit. you will be able to:

- · analyze the causes of World War I
- explain how Canada became involved in the war
- describe Canada's military contributions and evaluate its role in the Allied victories
- · appreciate how Canadians, both as communities and individuals, supported the war effort overseas and at home
- · examine the effects of technological developments during the war
- · evaluate the role of government during the war
- · assess the contribution of women and the women's suffrage movement
- · describe how the issue of conscription created tensions between English and French Canadians and divided the country
- assess the economic impact of the war on Canada
- · evaluate how the war contributed to Canada's independence as a nation
- use mind maps to analyze causes
- recognize and analyze bias
- · effectively use computerstored information for research
- prepare and evaluate a research report
- interpret and compare maps



War Breaks Out!

*

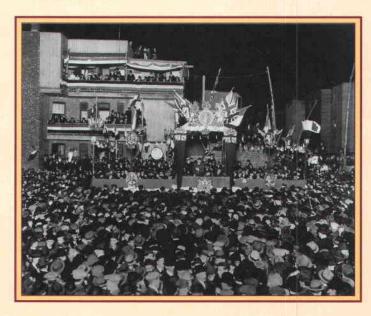
Canada at War!

Giant headlines on the front page of newspapers across Canada announced the news: WAR! On 4 August 1914, Britain declared war on Germany. Canada and the other countries of the British Empire were automatically at war too.

In 1914, few people in Canada expected a war. Fewer still could foresee the sudden and drastic change it would bring to their lives. Canada was thousands of kilometres away from the events boiling over in Europe. But Canada was a proud and loyal colony of the British Empire. Germany posed a direct threat to Britain, the Empire,

and world peace. In the eyes of most Canadians in 1914, Germany was an enemy that had to be stopped.

Patriotic feelings ran high in Canada. French-Canadian nationalists such as Henri Bourassa also rallied behind the call to arms to protect Britain and France, which had declared war as well. In Montreal, both French and English Canadians linked arms in the street and sang "La Marseillaise," the French national anthem, and the patriotic song "Rule Britannia."



Huge crowds gathered singing, cheering, and waving the flags of Britain and France.

When the war broke out—you cannot believe unless you were there. The country went mad! People were singing on the streets and roads. Everybody wanted to be a hero, everybody wanted to go to war... In half an hour I'm in the army and I didn't know how it happened.

-Bert Remington, a 19-year-old recruit

Most people believed the war would be over by Christmas. It would be short, glorious, and full of adventure. No one believed the British Empire could be defeated. In the early 1900s, people saw the British Empire as a

powerful world force. Who could have known it would take more than four years and the involvement of over 600 000 Canadians before peace would return to the world?

- 1. Account for the feelings of patriotism and the fervour for this war among Canadians in 1914.
- 2. Do you think Canada was prepared for a war? Explain.
- 3. How do you think Canadians today would react to the news of a world war? Why?

🏈 Flashpoint: 🎇 Sarajevo

World War I started with two fateful shots fired on the morning of 28 June 1914. The events took place in Sarajevo, a sleepy little town in what was then Austria-Hungary. This region of southeastern Europe, known as the **Balkans**, had been a hotbed of tensions for years.

On that day in 1914, citizens in Sarajevo were getting ready to welcome Archduke Franz Ferdinand and the Archduchess Sophia. The archduke was an important visitor. He was the heir to the Austro-Hungarian throne. For this visit to Sarajevo, he was in uniform—a light-blue tunic, black trousers, and a hat topped with large green ostrich feathers.

At 10:00 a.m., the royal couple drove toward the town hall in a four-car motor-cade. Suddenly, someone threw a bomb. The bomb exploded against the hood of the limousine, but the archduke was not hurt. The tour continued. At the town hall, the archduke complained angrily to the mayor, "I come here on a visit and get bombs thrown at me. It is outrageous!"

Both the mayor and the chief of police assured the archduke there would be no more danger.

The motorcade moved on to the governor's palace. Several minutes later, a 19-year-old, Gavrilo Princip, stepped up to the car and fired two shots from a pistol at point-blank range. The first shot hit the archduke in the throat; the second hit the Archduchess Sophia in the stomach. Franz Ferdinand, blood pouring from his mouth, saw that his wife was wounded. "Sophia," he reportedly cried, "don't die! Keep alive for our children." Both Franz Ferdinand and Sophia died on the way to the hospital.

The assassin, Gavrilo Princip, swallowed poison, but the poison failed to work. Within minutes Princip and five others were rounded up by the police. They were members of a Serbian terrorist group known as the **Black Hand**. Their plan had been to murder the archduke and then to commit suicide.

That day, a friend of the assassin sent a message in code to the Serbian capital. It read, "Excellent sale of both horses." Members of the Black Hand in Serbia knew exactly what this code meant. What they

An artist's impression of the assassination of Archduke Ferdinand at Sarajevo, 1914. The assassination was the flashpoint that started World War I.



could not know was the terrible effect those two shots would have on world history.

In Canada, few people in 1914 could find Serbia on a map. It was hard to imagine that the assassination of an archduke in a faraway corner of Europe could have much effect on Canadians. Yet in less than two months, the events that followed plunged Europe directly into World War I, and Canada was swept up in the tide.



The shots fired in Sarajevo on that day in June 1914 were the final spark that ignited World War I. But a historical event as complex as a world war involves many different causes. Tensions had been brewing in Europe since the late nineteenth century. Several factors led to the outbreak of the war.

Nationalism

Nationalism is a feeling of deep loyalty to one's people and homeland. By the early twentieth century, extreme nationalism was causing problems in Europe. Some people seemed willing to take any action to support their nation, regardless of the effects on others. They were prepared to go to war to promote the interests of their homelands.

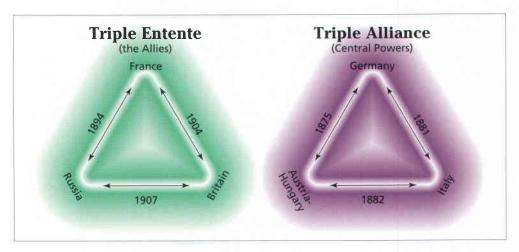
Nationalistic feelings were especially intense in the small country of Serbia in the early 1900s. Serbia bordered on the Austrian province of Bosnia. Austria-Hungary had annexed Bosnia in 1908. Many people of Serbian descent lived in Bosnia and bitterly resented being under Austrian control. Some Bosnian Serbs were determined to free Bosnia from Austrian domination and unite with Serbia into one powerful nation. They formed the terrorist organization known as the Black Hand. A terrorist organization supports violent action to gain its goals. Their motto was "Union [with Serbia] or Death." Members threatened to kill Archduke Ferdinand if he entered Bosnia. They were true to their word.

The Austrians were also expressing feelings of nationalism when they strongly opposed the attempts of Bosnia to break away from their empire. Nationalistic feelings made the region a powder keg waiting to explode.

Alliances

In 1914, Europe was already divided into two hostile camps. France and Germany had been involved in conflicts for centuries. Each had tried to find other countries to be its allies in case of future wars. **Alliances** are formed when countries band together against a common threat, and pledge to support each other in times of war.

France formed alliances with Russia and Britain in what was known as the



Triple Entente or "Allies." Germany joined with Austria-Hungary and Italy to form the **Triple Alliance** or **Central Powers**. When the war started, Italy left the Central Powers to join the Triple Entente.

The alliances were dangerous because they increased fear and suspicion among rival nations. With these alliances, a war between two countries would likely involve many more!

Imperialism

During the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, imperialism was gaining momentum. As the countries of Europe became more industrialized, they were increasingly interested in gaining colonies away from the home country and building huge empires. Competition for the raw materials, markets, glory, and power that colonies could provide was intense.

France had colonies in northwest Africa and east Asia. Russia controlled a vast empire stretching across northern Europe and Asia. The largest empire was controlled by Britain and included Canada, Australia, New Zealand, India, Burma, Malaya, South Africa (as well as other parts of Africa), the East and West Indies, and islands in the Pacific.

The United States had gained power in the Pacific by taking control of the

Hawaiian and Philippine islands. Germany also wanted colonies and world markets. But by the time Germany began to build an empire, all that remained were some territories in Africa and the Pacific that were not particularly valuable.

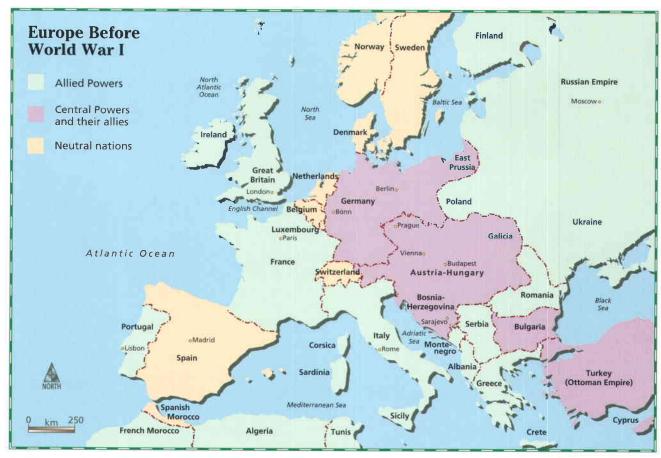
Competition for colonies led to frequent clashes among the major powers of Europe all over the globe. Several serious clashes had stopped just short of war.

Militarism

Closely related to nationalism and imperialism was the rise of militarism. **Militarism** is the belief in the power of strong armies and navies to decide issues. It was thought that the only way to guarantee peace was by preparing for war. If a nation is strong, no enemy will dare attack it. If war does break out, the militarized nation is able to defend itself.

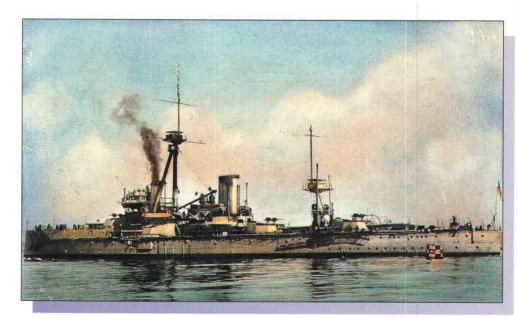
This kind of thinking led to an **arms** race in Europe. Each country produced steel battleships, high-powered guns, and explosives. Each tried to build a larger and more deadly war machine than its rivals. The size of armies and navies determined who would be the most powerful nation in Europe.

Britain therefore became nervous when Germany started building a huge navy. Since Britain was an island nation, it



In 1914, the Balkans were a hotbed of tensions and sparked World War I. Many wars had already been fought in this region of southeastern Europe surrounded by the Aegean, Adriatic, and Black seas.

A British battleship,
HMS Dreadnought.
Britain and Germany
were in fierce
competition to build
these powerful
battleships called
dreadnoughts and
control the seas.



depended on its giant navy to "rule the waves" and guarantee its safety. By building a powerful navy, Germany challenged Britain's supremacy at sea. The nations of Europe were becoming increasingly suspicious and alarmed by the others' military power.

The Final Steps to War

With these tense conditions in Europe, the assassination of Archduke Ferdinand quickly set off a chain reaction of events. Within just a few weeks, the Central Powers and the Triple Entente were embroiled in a world war.

The Austro-Hungarian government blamed Serbia for the deaths of the archduke and archduchess. Austria-Hungary saw a chance to crush Serbian nationalism. With the support of its ally, Germany, Austria-Hungary sent Serbia an ultimatum. An **ultimatum** is a demand by one government that another government accept its terms or face war. Austria-Hungary insisted that Serbia:

- 1. put down all nationalist hatred against Austria-Hungary
- 2. punish all those involved in the assassination plot
- 3. allow Austro-Hungarian officials into Serbia to help crush the Black Hand.

The Serbs were given 48 hours to reply to the ultimatum. They agreed to all the conditions except the third. They refused

to allow Austro-Hungarian officials into their country. Austria-Hungary took this as a complete refusal of its ultimatum and declared war on Serbia on 26 July 1914. Russia, considering itself an ally of the Serbs, started to mobilize its armies. France, as Russia's ally, also mobilized its forces. Germany now felt threatened by the actions of its two neighbours, France and Russia. Germany ordered them to stop mobilizing. When they refused, Germany declared war on Russia on 1 August 1914, and on France the next day.

Since the French border was heavily fortified, Germany planned to attack France through the small, neutral nation of Belgium. To this point, Britain was not yet involved in the war. However, Britain had signed a treaty guaranteeing that it would protect the neutrality of Belgium. Neutrality means a country does not help or support any side in a war or dispute. When Belgium was invaded, Britain declared war on Germany.

In London, England that evening, Sir Edward Grey, British foreign secretary, told a friend, "The lamps are going out all over Europe. We shall not see them lit again in our lifetime." In Canada, Prime Minister Robert Borden stated, "The world has drifted far from its old anchorage and no man can with certainty prophesy what the outcome will be." By midnight on 4 August 1914, all the countries of the two alliances, except Italy, were at war. World War I had begun!

FAST FORWARD

In 1914, tensions in the Balkans of Europe contributed to the outbreak of World War I. At the turn of the twenty-first century, the Balkans were still a hotbed of unrest. In the 1990s, however, war in the Balkans was contained within the region. Canada sent peacekeepers who helped with war relief and humanitarian missions. Canada also accepted 30 000 refugees from war-torn Kosovo in 1998.



Developing Skills: Mind Mapping Causes

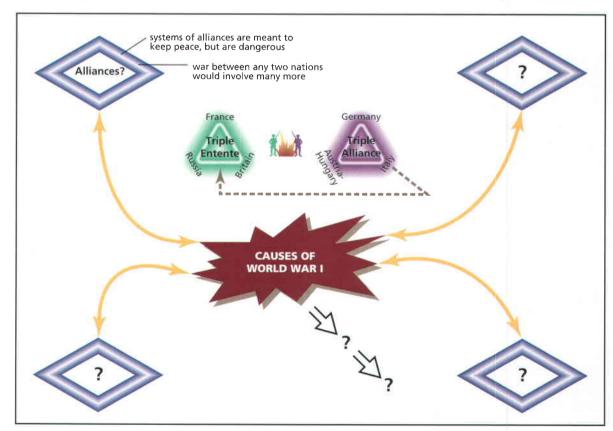
A group of sports fans is talking about the school's championship basketball game last weekend. Rita took a videotape of the game and is replaying it on the VCR. The group is amazed that the team actually did it! What was the secret of their success?

The group analyzes the tape. Leon says he is convinced it was the great offence. Rita thinks it was the team's defensive play. She sketches out some of the key plays on the board, showing how the players blocked the other team's offence. Leon sketches out some of the key offensive plays. Sharma argues that excellent coaching was a factor, and Karl says it was luck—the last three-point shot in the final seconds of the game. After a lot of discussion, the group decides their success was due to a combination of all factors, but especially great defence.

What the group has done is analyze the causes of an event. Any event can have several causes. Causes are reasons or factors which produce an effect, action, or condition. Understanding why events happen, especially very complex events, requires a careful investigation and analysis of all possible causes.

People have argued for a long time over the major causes of monumental events such as World War I. How did the shooting of Archduke Ferdinand lead to world war? Why were so many nations dragged into full-scale war over what should have been just a squabble between two countries, Austria-Hungary and Serbia? What other factors contributed to the war?

A mind map is one technique you can use to help you analyze the causes of World War I. A mind map is a way of sketching ideas to provide



a visual picture. It helps to organize information visually because it:

- · highlights important points
- · shows how ideas are connected
- triggers or cues your mind to remember key information.

The beginnings of a mind map to analyze the causes of World War I are set out on the previous page.

Work It Through!

- 1. Examine the mind map. Notice that the main idea, "CAUSES OF WORLD WAR I," is written in capital letters at the centre of the diagram. All other ideas are connected to it. Drawing shapes around the ideas or using symbols can help to create a visual reminder of what they mean and show their importance. For example, two hands shaking can be used to represent "Alliances."
- 2. The first cause listed is "Alliances." Copy the mind map and fill in the other main causes. Use the information in this chapter as a resource. Include a question mark after each cause to remind you that you need to investigate further. Develop your own shapes to symbolize each cause.
- 3. The information provided under Alliances presents a visual picture of the two camps that were formed in Europe. The battle symbol between them indicates that they were hostile camps. The arrow from Italy shows that that country changed

allegiances just before the war.

The point form notes summarize important information and answer the question: "How did alliances help to cause World War I?" In your mind map, use the note-making skills you learned in Chapter 1.

Fill in the key information for the other causes in your mind map. Use a different colour for each cause. Also include sketches, arrows to connect ideas, and any other symbols you find helpful.

- 4. Notice the arrows pointing out from the diagram. These represent the effects of the war. Fill in what you believe the short- and long-term effects of the war might be. For example, a short-term effect might be the massive number of soldiers killed on all sides. A long-term effect might be the emotional and financial devastation experienced by families who lost fathers or sons. When you complete your study of World War I, you can return to your mind map and check the effects you listed.
- 5. When your mind map is complete, review it and compare it with those of your classmates. Discuss similarities and differences. What is the value of having a visual layout of your notes?
- 6. Discuss the question: "Was any one cause more important than others? Why or why not?" Justify your answers.

Canada Goes to War

When World War I broke out, Canada entered the war as part of the British Empire. Britain still determined Canada's relations with foreign nations. There was no debate in the Canadian parliament over whether or not Canada should join the war. Since Canada was not a fully independent nation, it could not declare war or make peace on its own. When Britain

was at war, Canada was also automatically at war.

Support for Canada's involvement in the war was widespread. Former Prime Minister Wilfrid Laurier spoke for the nation when he said, "There is in Canada but one mind and one heart. . . . When Britain is at war, Canada is at war also." Henri Bourassa, the French-Canadian nationalist, agreed that it was Canada's duty "to contribute within the bounds of her strength . . . to the combined efforts of

France and England." Canadians seemed united against a common enemy.

Though Canada could not declare war on its own, it could decide on the nature and extent of its involvement. Prime Minister Robert Borden and his cabinet decided to support Britain whole-heartedly. In fact, plans were put in motion to establish a Canadian Expeditionary Force (CEF) even before Britain requested one. On 6 August, two days after war was declared, Canada offered Britain a force of 25 000 men trained, equipped, and paid by the Canadian government. This was a major commitment for a country of just over 7 million people.

How prepared was Canada for such a full-scale, modern war? Canada had only 3000 regular army soldiers. The navy consisted of only two aging cruisers, the *Niobe* and *Rainbow*, one for each coast!

But Canada did have over 60 000 militia (part-time citizen soldiers trained for emergencies). Colonel Sam Hughes, Minister of Militia, had been increasing military spending, expanding the militia, and upgrading their training for years. Many people questioned the expense. But when war was declared in 1914, they wondered if perhaps Hughes had been right. It was the militia and other volunteers who would make up the majority of Canada's forces overseas.

To meet Canada's commitment, Hughes organized a massive recruiting campaign across the country. He was convinced that volunteers had more spirit and could outfight professionals.

When the call went out, there was no shortage of volunteers. Recruiting offices were flooded with men and boys willing to fight for a private's pay of \$1 a day.

Canadian soldiers set off to fight. Most went in an upbeat mood, thinking the war would be over quickly.

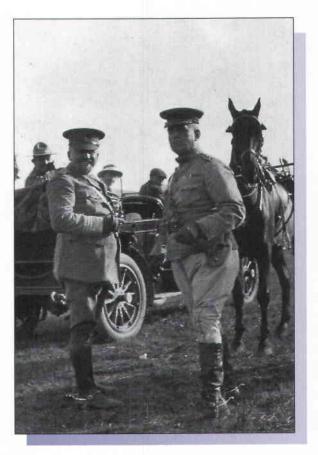


Many joined from a sense of patriotism. Others were swept up by the feelings of excitement and the sense of adventure, even though few knew what they were really getting into. Some were teenagers who lied about their age to get in. A few were as young as 14 or 15. One young boy recalled:

My brother had enlisted and he made it sound like a nice life. I figured, well, it will be a change. I would get overseas to see the world. I had no intention of ever getting killed. I was out for a trip. When I was on the train to Nova Scotia, I got quite lonesome and wished I had not joined.

Conditions in Canada in 1914 also fed the tide of men eager to enlist. From 1900 to 1912, Canada had enjoyed an economic boom and a period of prosperity. But by 1913, the country was facing an economic depression. British investors, who had poured money into Canadian railways and factories, started to keep their money at home. Factories slowed production and workers were laid off. Immigrants were still pouring into the country, but there was little or no work for them. On the Prairies, a drought caused a very poor wheat crop in 1913. The crop in 1914 promised to be little better. For poor farmers and unemployed workers, the army offered a steady job with pay, free room and board, and a sense of purpose.

We were heading into another depression in 1914. I can remember I was working on the railroad then, and I'd see the lineups every morning in the freight sheds ... Men were looking for jobs at one dollar a day ... The lineups were getting bigger and bigger. There was no unemployment insurance; there was no welfare or relief. .. The war just came



along and swept up these men into the army and later on into the factories and ended the unemployment—and probably prevented any opposition there might have been to the war.

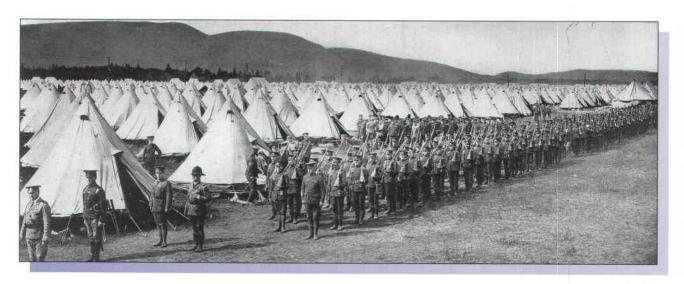
Within a week, 10 000 Canadians had volunteered. Not all joined as foot soldiers. Some men joined as engineers, medics, construction workers, or members of the cavalry units. Hundreds of women joined as nurses and ambulance drivers to serve overseas. At home, wealthy and patriotic citizens donated money for machine guns and trucks. The war effort was in full swing.

Mobilizing the Troops

To train and prepare the Canadian forces, Hughes had a huge camp set up at Colonel Sam Hughes (right) was Canada's Minister of Militia at the beginning of the war.



Netsurfer
For a view of World War I
through Canadian eyes, visit
this web site called
"Jack Turner's War" at
http://collections.ic.gc.ca/turner.



On a sandy plain at Valcartier, Quebec, a military training camp with tents, roads, horses, and the biggest rifle range in the world was hastily set up for 30 000 volunteers.

Valcartier, Quebec. Over 30 000 men went through the paces of training at Valcartier, but they were often poorly equipped. Hughes insisted that the troops be issued the Ross rifle. It was a good sharpshooting gun manufactured in Canada, but it proved to be useless in trench warfare. In the mud and dirt of the trenches, it frequently jammed. In sheer frustration, defenceless Canadian soldiers took Enfield rifles from dead British soldiers on the battlefield. But Hughes would hear no criticism of the Ross rifle. Eventually, after an official investigation, Canadian troops were issued new guns in 1916. Sam Hughes was later fired by Prime Minister Robert Borden.

Nevertheless, Hughes had mustered an impressive number of Canadian troops. By October, the first Canadian contingent was on its way across the Atlantic. In Britain, they were given more formal training on the muddy plains of Salisbury. The troops were placed under the command of British officers, most of whom were

from Britain's upper class. The officers demanded unquestioning respect. Canadian troops clashed with formal British traditions and the strict military discipline. Many also did not recognize the class distinction of officers taken for granted in Britain. Hughes also resisted British attempts to divide the Canadians and distribute them among other divisions of British soldiers. He insisted they remain as a united Canadian fighting force. By February, the Canadian troops were on their way to the front lines in France.

Other troops waited at home for their turn to join the forces overseas. Their main worry was that the war would be over before they got there. The soldiers had little idea of what lay ahead and little understanding of modern warfare. Images of short, sharp, glorious victories clouded their vision. Some marched off with a bounce in their step and a jaunty tune on their lips. They were off on a journey from which one in ten would never return.



IMPACT ON SOCIETY

PATRIOTISM AND PREJUDICE

Canada's population in 1914 was still primarily British. The majority of volunteers who enlisted in Canada's armed forces first were of British heritage. But by the end of the war, Canadians from many different backgrounds had participated and distinguished themselves. Some, however, faced racism and resistance in their efforts. People of Asian, African, and Aboriginal heritage faced hostility and discrimination, even when they were offering to fight for Canada. In fact, attitudes of intolerance toward all "non-British" people were heightened during the war. This was the negative side of the patriotic fervour with which people greeted the war.

Aboriginal nations consider themselves as separate nations independent of Canada. Most Aboriginal nations, however, did not discourage their members from joining the war effort if they wished. Over 4000 members of Aboriginal nations joined Canada's fighting forces in World War I. This was a significant number considering the total population of Aboriginal peoples at the time was around 100 000.

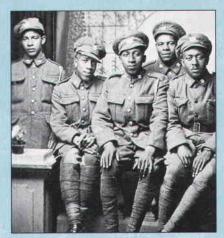
Among the Métis who served was Patrick Riel, a grandson of Louis Riel. Patrick Riel was killed at



Aboriginal members of the Canadian Expeditionary Force with their elders. Over 4000 Aboriginal people saw active service in World War I.

Vimy Ridge. Francis Pegahamagabow, an Ojibway from Parry Island in Ontario, won a military medal and several bars for his skill and courage as a scout and expert shot. He was the most decorated Aboriginal soldier in World War I. "Ducky" Norwest, a Cree, also won recognition as an excellent sniper. Many members of the Six Nations also volunteered to fight for the British Empire. Since they saw themselves as independent nations, they requested that a call for their services come from the King, and not the Canadian government.

Black Canadians who wanted to fight overseas met with resistance and racism. Military leaders did not want to accept Black recruits. However, the ghastly death toll on the front lines and the persistence of Black leaders forced the military to rethink its position. Some Black Canadians managed to break through the barriers and joined front line fighting units. Sixteen joined the 106th Battalion of Nova Scotia Rifles. One, Jerry Jones, served in



In 1916, the Department of Militia and Defence authorized the formation of the No. 2 Construction Batallion in Pictou, Nova Scotia. It was the first Black Canadian unit. Members of this unit contributed to the war effort by specializing in logging, milling, and shipping.



The Japanese population in Canada was small in 1914. Nevertheless, Japanese Canadians enlisted in the Canadian forces. Their contribution was forgotten during World War II, however, when many Japanese were interned and their property was confiscated.

France. He wiped out a machine gun post at Vimy Ridge and was wounded at Passchendaele. His hometown newspaper in Truro, Nova Scotia, described him in 1917 as a brave and resourceful patriot. His commander recommended him for a Distinguished Conduct Medal, but many top military officials and politicians still opposed Black enlistment in the army. They would not award a Black man a military medal.

Ukrainians, Germans, Austrians, and others from "enemy" countries were considered "enemy aliens" in Canada. It was feared they would still harbour sympathies for their home countries. Though they had been welcomed into Canada not many years before, many were deported (sent back) to their home countries or arrested and placed in internment camps during the war. Some, however,



Women also faced barriers in 1914. Women could not join the armed forces. Over 2000 Canadian women volunteered to work overseas as nurses and ambulance drivers, however. Many were stationed in field hospitals just behind the front lines.

such as the Ukrainians, had come to Canada to get away from the oppression of the German and Austrian empires. They wanted to fight against militarism and oppression by enlisting in the army. An estimated 10 000 Ukrainians served with the Canadian forces in World War I, though some were arrested for their efforts. One Ukrainian recruit, Philip Konowal, won a Victoria Cross for destroying a machine-gun nest in France in 1917.

Many other groups including people of Italian, Jewish, Chinese, and Japanese heritage also fought or worked in labour battalions for Canada during World War I. These were people Canada did not welcome into the country before the war. Some had lived in Canada for generations, but they were treated with increasing prejudice and hostility during the war. Though many showed their loyalty to the country and supported the war effort, their contributions were not recognized.

- 1. Find out more about the contributions of the individuals and communities mentioned in this feature.
- 2. What other communities made significant contributions to the war effort, but are not always remembered?
- 3. Discuss why the war heightened attitudes of racism and intolerance.

Developing Skills: Recognizing and Understanding Bias

What is bias? During World War I, many military officers and politicians were against Black Canadians enlisting in the armed forces. It was believed they would be "inferior" soldiers. This belief is an example of bias.

Bias is an inaccurate and limited view of an event, situation, individual, or group. Bias against a particular cultural, racial, religious, or linguistic (language) group can be expressed through speech, behaviour, and in written, audio, or visual materials. During World War I, the officers and politicians showed a racial bias against Black Canadians. They expressed this bias through discrimination by rejecting Black-Canadian recruits. Today, while there are still examples of such bias, it is not as widespread. There are many Black Canadians in the armed forces. Biased viewpoints can be changed.

A person's bias is shaped by his or her frame of reference. Personal background, family, education, culture, experiences, knowledge, concerns, and interests all go into making up a person's frame of reference. Around the time of World War I, the frame of reference of many White people around the world created the belief that Black people were "inferior." Today we know this view is wrong and should be rejected.

It is important to recognize bias because it is based on distorted facts and incomplete information. There is nothing wrong with different viewpoints. They invite discussion and critical thinking. But all viewpoints need to be analyzed carefully for bias. Recognizing bias also helps us to change our ideas or beliefs if they are not based on accurate and complete information.

Materials you read, hear, or see can express a bias. These materials can include books, newspaper or magazine articles, films, TV shows, posters, paintings, speeches, and web pages. Use the following questions as a guide to help you recognize and understand bias.

Key Criteria

1. a) What is the source and who is the author? What was the author's intention?

- b) Who is the intended audience?
- c) How might these facts influence the point of view expressed?
- 2. When was the material written or created? How might the time period and circumstances colour the view of events?
- 3. Are emotionally charged words or phrases used? Find examples. Which present a positive point of view? Which present a negative view?
- 4. What is fact and what is opinion? Are opinions supported by facts? Remember that facts are information or statements that can be proven. Opinions are thoughts or feelings that may or may not be supported by facts.
- 5. Does the author oversimplify? Are important facts left out?
- 6. Are both sides of the issue considered or is only one side presented and not the other?
- 7. a) Check other sources. Do they agree? If sources disagree, consider why.
 - b) Which sources do you trust? Why?
- 8. a) What is the bias? Try to state it in one sentence.
 - b) How might frame of reference account for the bias?
- 9. How might a more balanced view be presented?

Focus In!

Frequently, French and English Canadians have looked at issues from different points of view. Many people in Quebec have always felt like outsiders in Canada. They became part of the British Empire because of military defeat. Their frame of reference has been formed by their background, French-Canadian culture, and their experiences in

Confederation. English Canadians also have a frame of reference shaped by their background, culture, and experiences. This frame of reference can lead to bias.

Two reporters writing about Sir Sam Hughes, the Minister of Militia, may have very different frames of reference. A person of British descent, who is Protestant and lives in Ontario, might see Hughes as a hero. A French-Canadian Roman Catholic living in Quebec may see Hughes as arrogant and incompetent, and a threat to French-Canadian survival.

Read the following two fictional newspaper accounts describing the dismissal of Hughes as Minister of Militia in 1916. Use the questions outlined on the previous page to help you determine the bias in the articles.

Toronto Times

SIR SAM STEPS DOWN!

Toronto, November 1916

Sad news was announced in Ottawa today. Sir Sam Hughes is no longer the Minister of Militia. The prime minister, bending to howls of protest from Quebec, has dismissed Hughes—despite the fact that Hughes has done more for the war effort than any other Canadian. He recruited thousands of volunteers and raised thousands of dollars.

Canada entered the war with only 3000 men in the armed forces. By the end of 1915, Hughes had managed to put more than 100 000 on the battlefield. He also persuaded reluctant industrialists to invest heavily in the production of much needed war materials. We should be thankful that, through the contracts negotiated by the minister, tons of vital munitions are making their way to our soldiers at

Montreal Matin

HUGHES FIRED FROM THE CABINET

Montreal, November 1916

Prime Minister Borden has finally fired Sir Sam Hughes from the cabinet. Hughes will be unable to do any more damage to Canadian unity. As Minister of Militia, Hughes antagonized French Canadians. He ordered that training and instruction manuals for volunteers should be supplied in English only. More importantly, promotions were given only to the English-speaking officers. Those French Canadians who volunteered for the war have been insulted. How could Hughes and other Canadians expect French Canadi-

ans to join in the war effort when they are treated so poorly?

Hughes also disgraced the nation by rewarding his friends with munitions contracts. These shady deals have allowed his friends to make millions at the taxpayers' expense.

Why should French Canadians spill more blood in Europe? Canada only wants French Canadians in Confederation when we are willing to sacrifice for the British Empire. Britain started this war. Let Britain finish it!

Activities

Understand Facts and Concepts

1. Add these new terms to your Factfile. Explain their historical importance to events surrounding World War I.

Balkans militarism
Black Hand arms race
nationalism ultimatum
alliances Valcartier camp
Triple Entente Ross rifle

Triple Alliance

- 2. The diagram on page 67 shows how the Triple Entente and the Triple Alliance were formed.
 - a) Which alliance was made first?
 - b) Which two nations formed the first agreement? In which year?
 - c) When was the Triple Alliance completed?
 - d) Which European nation was the last to join an alliance?
- 3. Why did the system of alliances make countries feel safer? At the same time, how did alliances make a major war more likely?
- 4. Explain why an arms race developed in Europe early in the twentieth century.
- 5. a) Explain how Canada became involved in World War I.
 - b) How did French and English Canadians react when war was declared? Why?
 - c) How did Canada prepare its forces for the war?

Think and Communicate

- 6. When the Triple Entente was formed, Germany complained that it was being surrounded. Examine the map of Europe on page 68. How justified was Germany's complaint?
- 7. In 1914, Europe was divided into two armed and hostile camps. Were the alliances the cause or the effect of the arms build-up? Discuss your answers.
- 8. Work in groups. Imagine you are a news team in Canada in August 1914 when war is declared. Prepare a report on the events and the mood in Canada. Interview people for their reactions and include quotations from them in your report. Write your report for one of the following:
 - a) an English-Canadian newspaper
 - b) a French-Canadian newspaper
 - c) a major British newspaper
 - d) a German-Canadian newspaper

- e) a newspaper of a particular ethnocultural or racial community in Canada (Black, Chinese, Japanese, Aboriginal, etc.)
- f) a women's newsletter Include photographs or other visuals. You could also make an audio or video recording of your report and present it to other groups for feedback.
- 9. Research Canadian newspapers from August and September 1914. Use the questions from the skill on page 77 to analyze two articles for bias. Report your findings.
- 10. You are a teenager in Canada when war is declared. You have a decision to make. Will you serve overseas? Use the decision-making model in the following chart to help you. When you are considering the pros and cons of each alternative, think about what is important to you and the possible consequences of each alternative. Remember that you are putting yourself in the position of a teenager in 1914. Once your decision is made, re-evaluate it. Ask yourself again: "Is this the best decision?"

Decision to be Made: Should I serve overseas?				
Alternatives	Pros	Cons	Decision	

Apply Your Knowledge

- 11. Research and listen to a recording of the patriotic song "Rule Britannia," the popular song "Tipperary," or the tune by Canadian composer Morris Manley called "Good Luck to the Boys of the Allies." Describe why the song is patriotic. What does it suggest about the mood of people who sang it when war was declared in 1914?
- 12. a) Nationalism was very strong at the beginning of the twentieth century. Examine your own feelings of nationalism. Would you say they are strong? How do you express them?
 - b) Hold a class survey to answer the following question: "Would you be willing to go to war for Canada? Under what circumstances, if any?" Discuss the results.
- 13. Nationalism, competition for territory, military rivalry, and alliances were all factors that led to World War I. Are these factors still causing conflicts today? Scan the international news sections of one or two national newspapers or newsmagazines to find examples of events or places where these factors still exist. Clip the articles and report on your findings.

Get to the Source

14. In the House of Commons on 19 August 1914, Canada's Prime Minister, Sir Robert Borden, made the following statement.

In the awful dawn of the greatest war the world has ever known, in the hour when peril confronts us such as this Empire has not faced for a hundred years ... all are agreed: we stand shoulder to shoulder with Britain and the other British dominions in this quarrel. And that duty we shall not fail to fulfil as the honour of Canada demands. Not for love of battle, not for lust of conquest, not for greed of possessions, but for the cause of honour, to maintain solemn pledges, to uphold principles of liberty, to withstand forces that would convert the world into an armed camp; yea, in the very name of peace ...we have entered into this war.

- a) What are the major reasons Borden gives for Canada's entry into World War I?
- b) How does Borden make it clear that Canada is not entering this war for some of the reasons that other European countries declared war?
- c) Do you see any contradiction in Borden's words? Explain.
- d) As a Canadian today, how do you feel about the reasons Borden gives for Canada's entry into World War I?



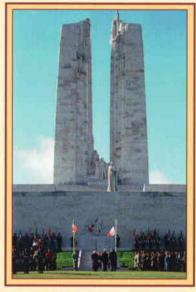
Canadians in Battle

Vimu Ridge 1917

Today, a white stone Canadian war memorial stands high on **Vimy Ridge** in France. Here on 9 April 1917, Canada won its most celebrated battle of World War I. German forces had dug in on the height of land at Vimy. From this vantage point, they could control all the surrounding areas. Several unsuccessful attempts had been made by both British and French troops to push out the German forces.

The Canadians were called in to spearhead an attack. Canadian General Arthur Currie spent months

carefully planning the assault and preparing every part of the force for its role. Finally, 100 000 Canadians advanced on the ridge. For the first time, all four Canadian divisions fought together. In a blinding sleet storm, the Canadians forced their way up the hill behind an exploding barrage of artillery. The artillery fire worked to provide cover for the advancing troops and prevented the Germans from



The Canadian National Vimy Memorial in France.

launching any effective counter fire. It was a brilliant strategy. In a few hours, the Canadians had captured the ridge. That day more ground, more guns, and more German prisoners were taken than in the first two-and-a-half years of the war.

Four Canadians won the Victoria Cross (the most prestigious award given by Britain to its heroes) at Vimy. The victory was a great morale booster and focused international attention on Canada. People said that at that moment, Canada became a nation. One soldier at the battle recalled:

The resounding victory, the first in Britain's two and a half years of war, gave every man a feeling of pride, the more so because the long battle line to our right had failed. A national spirit was born, and now to be British was not enough; we were Canadian and could do a good job of paddling our own canoe.

- 1. How do you think Canadian newspapers would have reported the victory at Vimy in 1917?
- 2. If you were a Canadian at home in 1917, how would you have reacted to the news of the victory?



The War on Land

By the time of the battle at Vimy Ridge in April of 1917, the war had already been underway for almost three years. Troop movements began during August 1914 when German forces swept through Belgium and into northeastern France. Germany wanted to capture Paris before the British and Russians could fully mobilize their armies. Within a few short weeks, German forces had advanced almost to the outskirts of Paris. The Allies had to respond quickly. The French and British rushed troops to the front using every available vehicle they could find including taxicabs. Eventually, they were able to stall the German advance.

Trench Warfare

World War I was fought mainly by trench warfare. Over the flat countryside of northern Europe, one way to defend against machine gun fire and exploding shells was to dig deep trenches for cover.

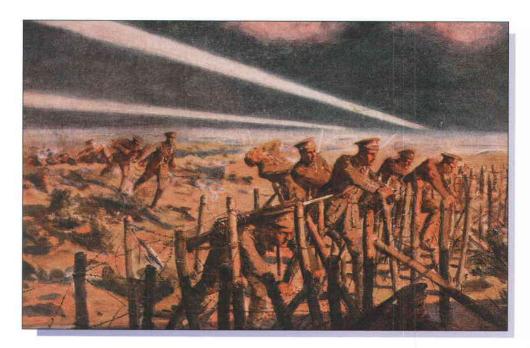
So in October 1914, after the Allies had stalled the German advance in France, both sides "dug in" before winter. They built long rows of trenches protected by machine guns and barbed wire. Parallel lines of trenches soon stretched several hundred kilometres from the English Channel to the border of Switzerland. The trenches twisted and turned across the countryside, separating the opposing forces in some places by only 25 m. Soldiers had to be on constant watch for machine gun fire or shots from snipers. One Canadian soldier, Will R. Bird, wrote about how one day a German sniper shot the periscope off his rifle as he looked over the top of his trench.

An officer wanted to know how near the enemy was, and would not believe Bird when he told him. He decided to take a quick look over the parapet. Bird shouted. 'Don't!' But he was too late. A bullet went right through the officer's head.

Between the enemy trenches was a desolate area called **no-man's land**. Raiding parties who ventured into no-man's land had to deal with barbed wire entanglements and buried land mines. They were also easy targets for enemy fire and exploding artillery shells. Wounded soldiers caught in no-man's land could sometimes not be brought back to safety. Soldiers in the trenches could only listen in vain to the cries of their dying comrades.

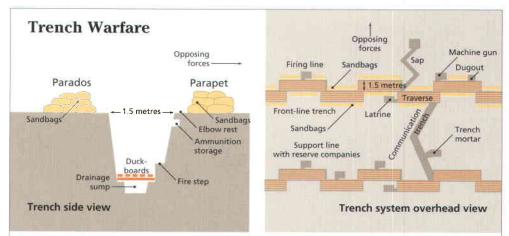
Most attacks came at night or during the hours of dawn and dusk. At these times, soldiers stood with rifles at the ready, tense and watchful for any signs of attack. Raiding parties at night would cut through the barbed wire in no-man's land with wire cutters and make surprise attacks with their bayonets. The area they cut through the wire had to be wide. If it

Soldiers had to struggle through barbed wire and mines to cross no-man's land.



wasn't and they were detected, they were an easy target for enemy machine guns. It is little wonder that neither side could gain much territory in the war.

During the day, the soldiers slept or dozed as best they could. Often they crawled into crude dugouts cut into the walls of the trenches or slumped against the sandbags. Conditions in the trenches were terrible at the best of times. In wet weather, the trenches became flooded and the men stood in water up to their knees. They were always cold, wet, and covered with mud. One report noted:



The trenches were laid out in a zigzag pattern so that enemy fire could not sweep along the whole length of the trench. The front-line trenches were usually about 2 m deep and protected by sandbags. Firing lines were linked by sections called traverses. Small trenches, called saps, probed out into no-man's land and served as lookout posts. Communication trenches led back to a line of support trenches, where command posts and reserve companies of soldiers were stationed.

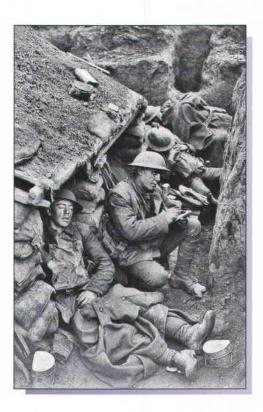
"There was mud everywhere, thick, gluey mud, in which was mixed up all the ruin of the war, bits of trees and buildings and guns . . . and human bodies." A Canadian soldier, Gregory Clark, described life in the trenches this way:

They speak of trenches. Trenches is too romantic a name. These were ditches, common ordinary ditches. As time went by, they became filthy. We had no garbage disposal, no sewage disposal. You would dig a deep hole and that was your latrine. You threw everything you didn't want out over the parapet. And if you stood at a place where, with powerful binoculars, you could look at the trenches, you saw this sort of strange line of garbage heap wandering up hill and down dale as far as the eye could see. In that setting men lived as if it were the way men should live, year after year!

In such conditions, sickness and disease spread rapidly. Since the soldiers could not keep their boots dry, many found that the flesh between and around their toes began to rot. This condition became known as trench foot. Others suffered from a painful infection in their gums called trench mouth. Every soldier had body lice living in his mud-caked uniform. Rats running through the trenches feeding on the garbage and human waste also carried diseases.

There was also the tremendous mental stress of battle. Some soldiers suffered from shell-shock, a severe nervous breakdown. Shell-shock was first recognized as a serious illness during World War I. For soldiers in the trenches, there was no escape from the constant fire and threat of death.

... For the guns hardly ever stopped firing, day or night. High explosive shells



Soldiers huddled in the trenches, sometimes sleeping sitting up.

fell upon the dugouts and buried men alive. Shrapnel shells burst in the air, spraying their deadly splinters above the open trenches — the tin helmet was invented to protect men's heads against shrapnel. Machine guns spluttered. Rifles cracked. There were many different noises at the front. Even more terrifying than the crash of the explosions was the noise the shells made as they flew through the air. The heavy shells rumbled like express trains. The smaller shells whined. The bullets whistled. The men learned to recognize the different noises and this often saved their lives.

After a month or so in the trenches, units would be allowed to go to the rear for the chance to sleep in a dry place, rest, eat a decent meal, and above all, bathe and clean up. Then it was back again to the front lines.



Developing Skills: Using Computer-Stored Information for Research

The Internet, on-line encyclopedias, CD-ROMS, and other computer resources are vast storehouses of information. In fact, there is so much information in these resources that it can be difficult to find exactly what you are looking for. When you are using the Internet, there is also another issue. How can you be sure the information is accurate and reliable? People who post web pages are not necessarily experts. No matter what you are looking for when using on-line resources, you need some key skills to help you:

- a) search for information effectively, and
- b) evaluate the information you find.

Searching for Information

Suppose your class will be doing research reports on "New Technology in World War I." Your particular topic is "poison gas." You want to use computer-stored information resources for your research. Here are some helpful tips.

1. Describe your topic. What do you want to know about poison gas? Write down three or four key questions you want to answer in your research.

Poison gas in World War I:

- What kinds were used and how were they made?
- How was poison gas used?
- What effects did it have?
- 2. Analyze your topic to decide on the key concepts. These concepts will help to focus your search. As you write down each key concept, stick to key words or phrases. Successful searches depend on key words.

Key Words

Concept #1 poison gas Concept #2 World War I

Concept #3 effects of poison gas

Notice how each concept focuses your topic further. A search for poison gas may bring up a great deal of information that has nothing to do with World War I. Listing World War I as your second concept more clearly defines your topic. Concept #3 focuses on another particular aspect of the topic you want to explore.

3. Next, brainstorm synonyms or related key words for each concept. These will help you to define your topic even further.

Key Words	Synonyms or Related Key Words
Concept #1 poison gas	mustard gas, chlorine gas, chemical warfare
Concept #2 World War I	German military history 1916
Concept #3 effects of poison gas	deaths, casualties, gas mask

General Search Strategies

- a. Select a key word (e.g., poison gas).
- b. Try the singular or plural form of the key word (e.g., poison gases), or type the word followed by an asterisk (e.g., gas*).
- c. If you are searching for a person, type in the common form of the name (e.g., Nellie McClung).
- d. Try words with similar meaning (e.g., airplane/aircraft or poison gas/chemical warfare).
- e. Try expanding or narrowing your topic (e.g., poison gas, mustard gas, chlorine gas).
- f. Use the Boolean features (and/or/not) to focus your hits.
- g. Bookmark promising sites so that you can return to them afterward.

- 4. Now you are ready to start your search. Try any of the key words. If you need to broaden or narrow your search, you can use the Boolean operators.
- To narrow the search, use the Boolean operator and.

Example 1: mustard gas and World War I

Example 2: mustard gas and World War I and casualties

Note that *and* is often typed as +: mustard gas + World War I + casualties.

• To broaden the search, use the Boolean operator *or*.

Example: mustard gas *or* chlorine gas *and* World War I

• To narrow the search further, use the Boolean operator and not.

Example: mustard gas and World War I and not chlorine gas

Or, you could link all three of your concepts using and.

Example: poison gas and World War I and effects of poison gas

Boolean Searches Boolean searches help you focus your hits using and/or/not. A and B = maple leaf AND hockey A or B = maple leaf OR hockey A and not B = maple leaf AND NOT hockey

Evaluating the Information

You have located some key sources of information. Now you are ready to examine each one. How can you evaluate the information to be sure it is reliable? Here are some important criteria to use, especially when you are evaluating information on the Internet.

- a) Authority
- Is there any information about the author on the web site? Who is the author? What are the author's qualifications and reputation in the subject? (If they are not listed, can you find out?)

 Does the domain address give you a clue about who sponsors the web site? Generally, government and educational sites are more reliable than a personal web page. Business, organizational, and personal web sites may have a particular viewpoint or bias you need to take into account.

gov a government site

edu an educational site, usually a college or university

org an organization or advocacy group site

com a business or commercial site

ca a Canadian site

~ a personal web page

b) Content and Accuracy

- Is the information correct? Can it be checked in other sources? Is there a list of sources used? Are there links to other web sites on the topic?
- Check how up-to-date the information is. The site should tell you when it was created or updated.

c) Bias

Information you get from a web site can be biased. Bias is a particular point of view. Biased information may include only some facts that support the point of view the author wants to present. Examine information carefully to determine if it is biased or unbiased. A site that is unbiased will aim to give you a balanced opinion. It will consider many people's opinions or sets of facts. You should be able to form your own opinions based on the facts.

Citing Internet Sources

When you do research, you are borrowing words, facts, and ideas of others. You must tell your reader where the material comes from. List all the sources you quote, paraphrase, or summarize at the end of any research report. This list of sources is often called "Works Cited," "References," or "Bibliography." Here is one format you can use for

citing sources from the Internet. It follows the Modern Language Association (MLA) documentation style. For more information on the MLA citation styles, visit this web site:

http://www.english.uiuc.edu/cws/wworkshop/mlamenu.htm.

Format:

Author(s). Name of Page (in italics or underlined). Name of Organization (or the term "Home page" if it is a personal home page). Date of Posting. Date you accessed the material. <electronic address, i.e., URL of the site>

Examples:

World Wide Web pages

Ivarone, Mike. Armory: *Gas Warfare*. Home page. Updated 12 Nov. 1999. 31 Nov. 1999. http://www.worldwar1.com/arm006.htm

On-line Encyclopedia

No author listed. "Chemical Warfare." *Britannica Online*. Dec. 1998. 14 Jan. 1999.

http://www.eb.com/180

CD-ROMs

Coffman, Edward M. "World War I." World Book Multimedia Encyclopedia. CD-ROM 1998.

Try It!

1. Put your new skill to work by doing research on one of the following topics related to World War I. Follow each step outlined above. After your search, cite the Internet sources you found and considered reliable. Include notes on any sites you found that you did not consider reliable and note why.

a) trench warfare

d) aircraft

never be forgotten at Ypres, Festubert, the St. Eloi craters, Mount Sorrel, the Somme, Courcelette, Vimy Ridge, the Scarpe, Pass-

b) tanks

e) role of women

c) submarines



Netsurfer
Visit an excellent site for research on World War I at www.worldwar1.com.



The first division of 20 000 Canadian troops took up places alongside their allies on the front lines in mid-April 1915. In the horror of the months and years that followed, they were joined by another 600 000 fellow Canadians. Some of Canada's most prominent moments in the war are associated with battles along the **Western Front**. Canada's contribution will



chendaele, Amiens, Arras, the Canal du Nord, and Cambrai. The following are only a few of the major battles in which Canadians were involved.

Gas Attack at Ypres

Canada's first major battle in the war was fought near the ancient city of Ypres in Belgium in 1915. Canadian troops were sent to help hold 3.5 km of the front line in the face of heavy German attack. It was a harsh beginning. The troops were surprised by a deadly new weapon—poison gas! It was the first poison gas attack in history. As the yellow-green clouds of gas filled the trenches, the Canadians were the only troops able to hold their position and mount a successful counterattack. They stalled the German advance and won high praise for their courage, but the cost was high. Over 6000 men died.

After Ypres, more effective gas masks were developed. Though banned by international treaty, both chlorine and mustard gas were used during World War I.



One in five was listed as killed in action, gassed, missing, or wounded.

One soldier recalled, "I have never been in a battle—and I have been in many—where the men were suffering in such numbers that their crying and groaning could be heard all over the battlefield." The deadly chlorine gas burned the eyes and throat, and destroyed the lungs. Soldiers who breathed the gas choked, gagged, gasped, coughed, and died. A Cana-

dian medical officer recognized the gas as chlorine and came up with an antidote—the men soaked their handkerchiefs in urine and held them over their faces. It was their only defence.

Later in the war, even more deadly poison gases were used by both sides. Worst of all was mustard gas. This burned the skin and the respiratory tract, and caused blindness.

(Detail of above map) **Great Britain** Netherlands Dunkirk Passchendaele of Nov. 1917 Dover English St. Eloi Ypres Apr. 1915 Channel Apr. 1916 Mount Sorrel June 1916 Hill 70 Aug. 1917 Belgium Vimy Ridge km 25 Arras o Apr. 1917 Beaumont Hamel July 1916 Amiens Front line Germany November 1914 France Front line December 1917 Luxembourg Major battles involving Canadians

North Sea

Battle of the Somme

The first day of the Battle of the Somme in France—1 July 1916—was the most disastrous the British army had ever faced. The Canadian corps fought as part of the British forces under the command of British General Haig. By nightfall, British and Canadian casualties totalled 57 470, the highest ever in warfare for one day's fighting.

Where is the front line in 1914? Where is it in 1917? What does this tell you about the amount of territory gained during the war?

Battle Sites, 1915–1917

Troops from Newfoundland and Labrador played a major part in the Battle of the Somme. These troops faced a particularly strong part of the German line at Beaumont Hamel. British bombardment was supposed to have taken out the German machine gun posts and cleared noman's land of barbed wire. This was tragically untrue. The soldiers were mowed down by machine gun fire as they struggled to get across no-man's land. When it was over, 90 per cent of the regiment was dead or wounded. It was the greatest single disaster in the 500-plus year

history of Newfoundland and Labrador. July 1 is still marked as a solemn memorial day in that province.

In spite of the heavy losses, hardly any ground had been captured. General Haig, however, insisted that the attack go on. For 141 days, the Battle of the Somme dragged on. Canadians fought so heroically that they were marked out as storm troops. During the rest of the war, they were often called in to spearhead an attack. British Prime Minister Lloyd George later wrote in his war memoirs: "Whenever the Germans found the Canadian corps coming into

their line, they prepared for the worst."

When the Battle of the Somme finally ended five months after it began, both armies were exhausted. Casualties for both sides had reached 1.25 million, of whom 24 000 were Canadians. The British had advanced no more than 11 km.

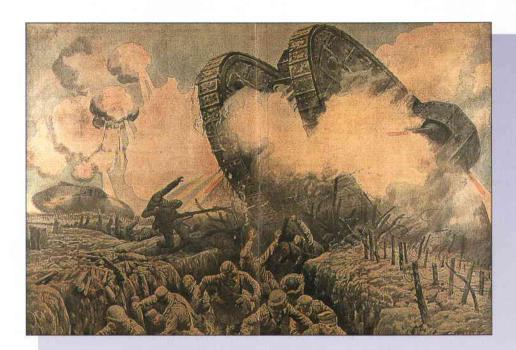
At home, people were horrified by this massacre. Many blamed General Haig for insisting the battle go on despite the heavy casualties. Others blamed the politicians who started the war. The real enemy seemed to be neither the Germans nor the Austrians, but the war itself.

Vimy Ridge

In February 1917, Canadian General Arthur Currie was given orders to capture Vimy Ridge. The German position on the ridge seemed invincible. But Currie had learned from the experience of earlier battles. He was convinced that poor preparation and

As the battle of the Somme began at exactly 7:30 a.m., a British officer led his troops "over the top," One soldier was hit as soon as his head appeared over the trench. The others stumbled through no-man's land toward the German trenches through a hail of machine gun fire. At the end a British sergeant recorded. "Our dead were heaped on top of each other . . . in places three and four deep."





Tanks were used for the first time in warfare during the Battle of the Somme.

- 1. Describe the features of the tank shown in this painting.
- 2. How does this painting show the effectiveness of the tank for trench warfare?
- 3. Why do you think military leaders at first did not believe in the value of the tank? What disadvantages do you think tanks would have on the Western Front?

scouting had caused high casualties and heavy losses in the past. Currie was not prepared to send his men blindly across no-man's land to be slaughtered as they stumbled toward enemy machine gunners and barbed wire. He had spoken up against unsound plans from British head-quarters in the past. Instead, he had submitted alternative plans, which were often adopted.

Currie became a respected strategist in the war and was the first Canadian to be promoted to the rank of general. He also fought to keep Canadian soldiers together in a true Canadian Division. Now at Vimy, all Canadian Divisions would fight together.

Currie made sure that preparations for the battle were extremely thorough. Troops built a full-scale model of the battle area and carefully practised their manoeuvres again and again. Planes flew reconaissance (scouting) missions and clearly plotted out the positions of the German guns. Light railway lines were built to move artillery, and a maze of underground tunnels was dug to move troops and supplies safely and secretly. When the time for the battle arrived, every soldier knew his job.

The plan was to have the troops closely follow a massive barrage of artillery fire on the German position. Usually, troops waited for days for artillery fire



Netsurfer
For more information on
Canada's participation
in the war, visit the
Canadian War Museum at
www.civilization.ca/cwm

Canadian General Currie became a respected strategist in the war. Before the battle of Vimy, he said, "Thorough preparation must lead to success. Neglect nothing."



to blow out enemy guns before they dared advance. By following the barrage immediately, Canadian infrantrymen gained the element of surprise. They pushed forward and successfully took the ridge. The Canadians had won the only significant victory for the Allies in 1917. It was a turning point in the war for the Allies and for Canada as a nation. Largely as a result of this victory, Canada won a seat as a separate nation at the peace talks after the war.

Passchendaele

After Vimy, General Currie was knighted and promoted to command the entire Canadian corps. In October 1917, he was called in by British General Haig to formulate a plan for the capture of Passchendaele. This Belgian area of land had once been beneath the North Sea. When the shelling destroyed drainage ditches, the land became waterlogged. Soldiers sometimes wept with the sheer frustration of trying to advance through the mud. Narrow duckboards were placed as pathways over the mire. Nevertheless, thousands of soldiers and horses who slipped into the mud were sucked in and drowned. Locomotives sank to their boilers and tanks quickly bogged down.

The troops took the ridge, but it was a bitter victory. A British official, seeing the battlefield for the first time, cried out, "Good God! Did we really send soldiers to fight in that?" Almost 16 000 Canadians lost their lives at Passchendaele. The offensive gained 7 km of mud that the Germans soon won back again.

In Richard Jack's painting of the Vimy battle, Canadian soldiers fire heavy artillery guns at the German position. It was Canada's most celebrated victory.



ArtsTalk





Women Making Shells by Henrietta Mabel May



The Stretcher-Bearer Party by Cyril Henry Barraud



Canadian Gunners in the Mud (at Passchendaele) by A.T.J. Bastien

Canadian War Art

During World War I, artists, photographers, and reporters were sent to the front to record the action. A Canadian named Max Aitken (Lord Beaverbrook) played an important role in keeping Canadian war records. Originally born in New Brunswick, he had moved to England and become a wealthy and influential newspaper baron. In 1914, he offered his services to the Canadian government and became responsible for reporting on the Canadian Expeditionary Force. He also established the Canadian War Memorials Fund, which paid artists from various countries to produce works of art related to the war.

Several artists, including some who later became part of the famous Group of Seven, went to the front lines. Between 1916 and 1919, over 800 works of art by more than 80 artists were produced. Today many of these paintings and sketches are found either in the Canadian War Museum in Ottawa or in the British War Museum in London. Lord Beaverbrook also wrote the immensely popular series of books, *Canada in Flanders*, which recorded the achievements of Canadian soldiers in the field.

War reporters and artists shared the same hardships and risks as front-line soldiers. Often they sent back rough sketches along with their notes and news stories. Other artists sometimes completed the work for publication. The scenes were frequently copied in quantity and sold to patriotic Canadians. The war artists did not glorify war. They portrayed the grim horror of the battlefield. Some artists also painted scenes showing the effects of the war at home.

- 1. Why would artists have been called upon to act as reporters during World War !?
- 2. Describe the scenes shown in the paintings. What impressions do they create of the war?
- 3. Research other Canadian war paintings. Display copies of the paintings and add captions to describe the events and the artists.



The War in the Air

When war broke out in 1914, the airplane was a new and unproven invention. Few military leaders had any confidence in the airplane as a weapon of war. Canadian Colonel Sam Hughes is reported to have said, "The airplane ... will never play any part in such a serious business as the defence of a nation."

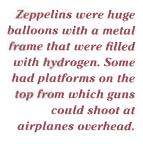
Canada had no air force of its own when the war broke out. The Royal Canadian Air Force was not organized until 1924. But Canadians who wanted to fly joined the British Royal Flying Corps. They served as pilots, gunners, air crew, and mechanics. Canadian airmen proved to be formidable flyers and quickly gained a reputation for bravery and prowess in battle. Britain responded by launching a pilot training program in Canada. By 1918, 40 per cent of the British Airforce pilots were Canadian.

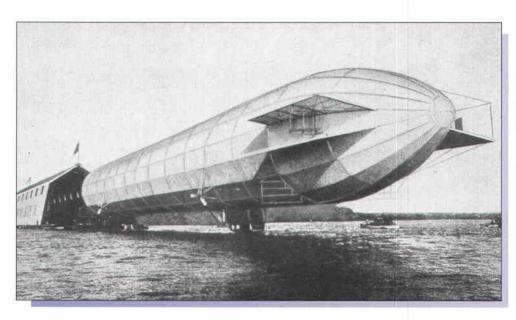
At the beginning of the war, Germany seemed to have the upper hand in the air war. The Germans had 400 airplanes, while the French had only 156 and the British

113 planes. By autumn 1915, the Germans also had a superior fighter plane called the Fokker. It was armed with a machine gun that had a timed firing mechanism so that bullets did not hit its own propeller blades. German flyers also used gasfilled balloons called Zeppelin dirigibles or airships on observation missions and bombing raids. Eventually, both sides used airships. By 1917, the British had developed the Sopwith Camel, an effective fighter plane.

Young men, most in their late teens or early twenties, flocked to the air force. Trench warfare offered no glory. Pilots fought in leading edge war machines and received better food, pay, and uniforms. They also slept in warm beds at night. But they paid a high price for their glory. The percentage of pilots killed was higher than in any other branch of the military. In late 1916, it was said that the average life of a pilot was three weeks. The air service was called "the suicide service." Planes were sometimes referred to as "flying coffins."

The pilots' fighting technique was to engage in dangerous aerial duels called dogfights. The flyers manoeuvred their







An artists' impression of Canadian pilot Roy Brown shooting down Germany's Red Baron.

light planes to dive on the enemy from the rear and then fire. Those hit went down in a "flamer." There were no parachutes to save those unlucky enough to be shot down. Many other casualties were the result of mechanical failure.

Canada's Air Aces

The great air aces included Germany's Manfred von Richthofen, Britain's Alfred Ball, and Canada's Billy Bishop. An **ace** was a fighter who had shot down at least five enemy planes. Von Richthofen, known as the Red Baron, downed 80 planes in his career.

Few people know that it was a Canadian air ace who finally shot down the Red Baron. On 21 April 1918, von Richthofen, flying above the Somme Valley, spotted an Allied plane far below. He put his Fokker into a steep dive and moved in. His target was an inexperienced

Canadian flier, Wilfred ("Wop") May. Suddenly, May's gun jammed, but behind von Richthofen was another Canadian pilot, Captain Roy Brown. Brown, in his Sopwith Camel, opened fire on von Richthofen. The Red Baron fell into a deadly spin. The German ace was dead at the age of 26. Today the seat of the Red Baron's plane is displayed at the Royal Military Institute in Toronto. You can put your finger through the bullet hole in the seat.

Canadian pilots played a very important role in the Allied air battles. A group of Canadian flyers called the **Black Flight** flew several successful missions. On one day in June 1917, they shot down 10 German planes. In total, Canadian fighter pilots brought down 438 enemy aircraft during World War I. Four of the top seven leading aces of the Royal Air Force were Canadians. It was a remarkable record!



SPOTLIGHT On...

Billy Bishop

Billy Bishop was one of the greatest fighter pilots of the British Commonwealth. As a boy in Owen Sound, Ontario, he practised shooting at moving targets with his rifle in the woods. His firing expertise later served him well during the war. Billy Bishop first joined the Canadian Mounted Rifles after the war broke out. but he was not completely happy in the cavalry. One day, while at camp in England, he saw a Nieuport biplane land and knew that he wanted to fly. He transferred to the air force as an observer and flew patrols and scouting missions.

It wasn't until 1916 that he got his fighter pilot's training. He got into his first dogfight in March 1917. On that first day behind the front lines, he shot down a German plane. Later, in one five-day period, Bishop destroyed 13 planes.

Billy often flew the skies alone. On one occasion, he attacked a German air base near Cambrai, France. Two enemy planes rose to chase him, and Bishop shot down both of them. Two more enemy planes came up to attack him. One fell from the deadly fire of Bishop's gun, and the other was driven off, out of ammunition. Billy Bishop returned safely to his home field.

Despite his successes, Billy Bishop was often depressed by the high rate of death among pilots and by the loss of his fellows. He had his own brush with death more than once. On one occasion, German ground guns hit his fuel tank. With his plane on fire he still managed to make it back to Allied territory, but crashed into a tree. Lucki-



ly it was raining and the rain put out the fire in his plane, but Billy was badly shaken.

By the end of the war, Billy Bishop was awarded the Victoria Cross by Britain and the highest honours of France. He was among the top three Allied air aces. He went on to become Director of Recruiting for the Royal Canadian Air Force in 1940.

- 1. Other Canadian flyers who became known for their accomplishments include Billy Barker, Raymond Collishaw, Roy Brown, A.A. McLeod, and Donald McLaren. Research their contributions and create a poster highlighting their achievements.
- 2. Why do you think it is important to remember people like Billy Bishop? How can we remember others who also fought or contributed to the war effort but who are not as well known?

The War at Sea

Germany knew that command of the seas was of supreme importance to Britain. As an island nation, Britain depended on its navy to keep the sea lanes open for supplies of food and raw materials. The German surface navy was no match for the British Royal Navy, but the Germans had a more deadly weapon—the submarine or U-boat (Unterseeboot). From the beginning of the war, German submarines prowled the seas. They attacked British ships in an attempt to cut off supplies. At the same time, the British navy tried to blockade the German coast so that food and war supplies could not get into Germany by sea.

Germany warned that it would sink all ships in enemy waters without warning. In 1915, the British luxury liner *Lusitania* was torpedoed. Eleven hundred and ninetyeight people drowned in panic and chaos. More than half the passengers on the vessel were Americans. The American people were shocked at this attack on their citizens. The United States had to this point stayed out of this European war. But American public opinion was turning against Germany. For a time, Germany held back and did not want to risk the Americans joining in the war.

But by 1917, the war on the Western Front was still dragging on. Some decisive action was needed. Germany decided to introduce a policy of "unrestricted submarine warfare." German U-boats would sink any Allied or neutral ship approaching Britain. The goal was to cut off all supplies and weapons from reaching that Allied nation. The policy was extremely effective.

In four months, German submarines sank over 1000 Allied ships. Britain had to find a way to counter the U-boats, or it would be starved into surrender.

One answer was the **convoy system**. Since the beginning of the war, Canada had been shipping huge quantities of food, munitions, and other war supplies to Britain. The port of Halifax was the chief transport link between Canada and Europe. Now instead of cargo ships sailing alone from Canada and the United States to Britain, they began to sail in fleets or convoys. Supply ships were escorted by armed destroyers that kept constant watch like sheepdogs guarding a flock of sheep.

Canada's navy had only two warships at the beginning of the war, but yachts and other vessels were bought, refitted, and armed. These ships took part in many of the convoys to Britain and helped get through necessary supplies. A Canadian Patrol Service also protected shipping and sought out submarines off Canada's coast.

By the end of the war, Canada's navy had grown to 112 warships staffed by 5500 officers and men. Canadian shipyards built more than 60 anti-submarine ships and more than 500 smaller anti-submarine motor launches. In addition, several thousand Canadians served in the British Royal Navy, in the Royal Naval Canadian Volunteer Reserve, and in the Royal Naval Air Service.

The U-boats did tremendous damage to British and Allied shipping. However, the sinking of American ships by U-boats brought the United States into the war against Germany. The entrance of the Americans in 1917 helped to turn the tide in favour of the Allies.

The Technological Edge

SUBMARINES, MACHINE GUNS, AND AIRPLANES

With World War I came many new advances in technology, especially in weaponry. Poison gas and tanks were used for the first time in warfare. New types of machine guns and fighter planes were developed. On the seas, submarines that could fire torpedoes at moving targets made their debut. As each of these new weapons was developed, new ways of defending against them also had to be invented.

Submarines

World War I submarines were relatively small, but their torpedoes could sink the largest ships. The early submarines could stay submerged for two and a half hours. Submarines carried a crew of 35 and 12 torpedoes. Torpedoes were very expensive, but could be fired underwater at a moving target. However, U-boats preferred to come to the surface and sink their enemies by gunfire.

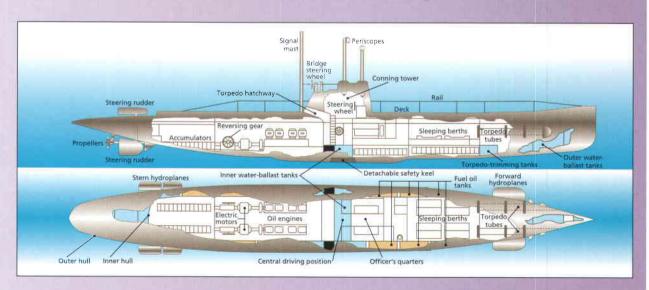
All navies developed hydrophones (listening equipment) to pick up the sound of the submarines' engines underwater. By the end of the war, they also used sound echoes to find the position of the sub-



marines and then dropped depth charges (explosive devices) to destroy them.

Machine Guns

At the beginning of the war, British generals believed the machine gun would be of only limited use. Machine guns were steadily refined and improved in their killing efficiency during the war and accounted for a vast number of casualties. They proved to be a very effective weapon for mowing down enemy troops advancing over no-man's land.



The Last Hundred Days

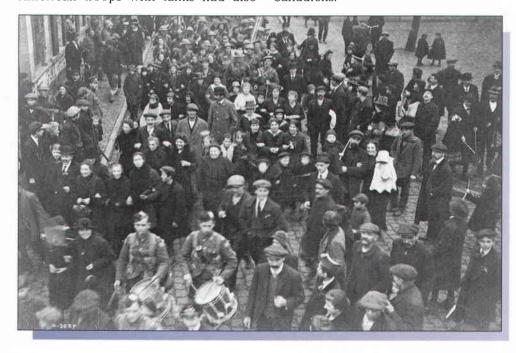
By the spring of 1918, Germany's leaders realized a crisis had come. The policy of unrestricted submarine warfare had not forced Britain to surrender. Now the United States had entered the war. Germany's allies, Austria-Hungary and Turkey, were on the point of collapse. The only hope for Germany was to launch a mighty offensive on the Western Front before the United States army could arrive in Europe in large numbers.

Thousands of German soldiers poured into France. They were stopped only 80 km from Paris. Canadian forces participated in one final great sweep against the German attack. This Allied effort that finally broke the back of the German military was called the "Hundred Days."

On 8 August, Canadian troops spearheaded the Allied attack. Supported by tanks and aircraft, the troops swept north and east toward Germany. Fresh American troops with tanks had also arrived and were a great encouragement for the Allies. Tanks were now better armed and more reliable than earlier models. Aircraft, using new tactics, blasted German trenches with bombs. The Germans fought hard, but they fell back steadily. The Allied advance moved a staggering 130 km. This was a far cry from the earlier gains of only a few kilometres at a time. For six weeks, the Canadians were at the forefront of the Allied advance. Eventually, the Allies won back France and then Belgium.

By November, the Allies had reached the frontiers of Germany. On **11 November 1918**, at a predawn ceremony, Germany formally surrendered. Hostilities ceased at 11:00 on that morning. Five minutes before 11:00, a sniper killed George Price, the last Canadian to die in World War I. For some Canadian troops, the war ended on the streets of the Belgian town of Mons. The Belgians flew flags that had been hidden for four years while their country was occupied by German forces. Grateful Belgians shouted, "Vive les braves Canadiens!"

Canadian troops celebrate the end of the war in Belgium. The war had cost over 4 million lives on all sides, but it was finally over.





The Vickers Mark 1 was used by the English army during the war. It could spit out bullets at the rate of 450 to 550 rounds a minute. Soldiers often referred to machine guns as "coffee grinders" because they ground to pieces anyone or anything in their range.

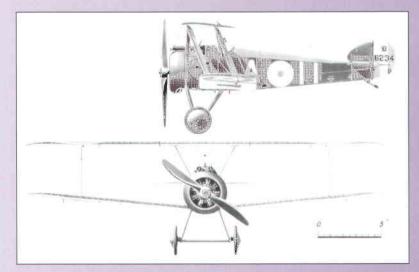
Airplanes

The earliest airplanes in World War I were usually single-seaters. Their maximum speed was between 95 and 125 km/h, and they could stay airborn for only an hour without refuelling. At first unarmed airplanes were used just to scout enemy positions

behind the lines. Some pilots carried pistols, rifles, and shotguns. Others caught in battle threw bricks or links of rusty chain at the propellers of opposing planes to bring them down.

The Sopwith Camel was the premier fighter plane developed by the Allies during the war. Pilots flying in Camels shot down more enemy planes than pilots in any other aircraft. The Camel had the unique ability to make a very sharp turn to the right, allowing a skilled flyer to swoop in on the tail of an enemy plane. It could reach maximum speeds of 182 km/h and fly to a height of 5800 m.

- In groups, discuss and record some of the pros and cons of the technological advances made during World War I. Consider how these developments were used both during the war and how they could be used in peacetime.
- 2. Choose one technological advance such as the submarine or airplane. Do some research on one of the most advanced military aircraft or submarines used today and compare it with the World War I models. What advances have been made? How are these aircraft or submarines used today? Include diagrams, models, photographs, or other media in your presentations.



A diagram of a Sopwith Camel, the premier fighter plane used by the Allies during World War I.



Developing Skills: Preparing a Research Report

How many times have you had to look for information on one topic or another? You may have needed information on anything from how to fix your bicycle to the latest innovation in CD-players. The ability to research, record, and report information effectively is an important skill you can use in almost anything you do.

You are asked to write a research report about World War I. Where do you start? Here are some key steps to follow.

Step I Purpose

- 1. Be sure you understand your assignment. For example, you need to know that a **report** summarizes and presents important information on a particular topic. It is different from an **essay**, which develops a particular point of view or argument. First, ask yourself these questions.
- · What exactly am I being asked to do?
- When is the assignment due?
- How long should it be?
- How is it to be presented—written, oral, etc.?
- How will it be evaluated?

Highlight key words in your assignment so you are absolutely clear on what you need to do.

Step II Preparation

- 2. You may be given a choice of topics. Choose your topic carefully. Ask yourself:
- · Will I find this topic interesting?
- Is this topic manageable?
- Will I be able to find resources?
- Will I have enough time to complete the work on this topic?
- Is the topic specific or too broad? Do I need to define it more carefully?

Suppose you want to investigate new technology developed during World War I. By asking the above questions, you will come to the conclusion that this topic is not manageable. It is too broad. So much new technology was introduced that it would be impossible to cover it all in a short report. You need to narrow your topic. For example, you could focus on poison gas, which was first used in warfare during World War I.

3. You can go one step further in focusing your topic. Ask yourself what you want to know about poison gas. Write down three or four key questions you want to answer.

Poison gas in World War I:

- What kinds were used and how were they made?
- How was poison gas used?
- · What effects did it have?

Step III Process

4. Once you have a clear idea of your topic, you can start your research. Two places to start are the card or computer catalogue in your resource centre and the Internet. These will help you to identify possible resources.

The catalogue in your resource centre lists all resources by author, title, and subject. You will need to look under the subject to start. You could look under "poison gas," "World War I," or "weapons." [Hint: Always have a pencil and paper with you when using the catalogue. Jot down the call numbers of the books so you can locate them on the shelves.] Also check periodical indexes and computer databases for magazines, audio-visual resources, newspaper reports, and journal articles. Check the vertical information files. You will probably be surprised by the amount of information you discover.

If you are searching the Internet or other computer-stored information resources, you can apply the skill you learned on pages 86-88.

5. Next, get an overview of your topic by browsing and skimming through a number of the resources you locate. The idea is to familiarize yourself with the information available on your topic. Then you can decide where you will focus your attention in your research.

For example, you may discover that the Internet, special reference books on weapons of World War I, and documentary films are the best sources of information.

6. Make point-form notes from your resources. Try to use your own words. Gather references for illustrations as well. Always note the source of the information. You will need this information when you compile your list of references later.

Step IV Product

7. Once you have gathered your information, develop a working outline for your report. You can use this outline as a framework later when you write your report.

Examine the sample below. Your outline should include a few main sub-topics. The sub-points under each sub-topic would include more detailed information, illustrations, photos, etc. As a conclusion, you could present your ideas on what impact poison gas had during World War I and how it changed warfare. You could also include your ideas on the positive and negative aspects of wartime technological developments.

8. Prepare a draft copy of your report. Decide on an introduction that will grab the reader's or listener's attention. It should give a clear and concise statement of the focus topic.

Develop each of your sub-topics. Be sure the sub-topic is clearly expressed in a topic sentence and the sub-points refer to and develop the sub-topic. Put the sub-points in the most effective order.

Write a conclusion that summarizes your main points, reinforces what you have said, and leaves your audience with something interesting to think about.

- 9. Edit your draft. Be sure that:
- you have met the requirements of the assignment
- the report is organized logically and makes sense to the reader
- the sentences vary in length and structure
- the spelling, grammar, capitalization, and punctuation are correct.

Sample Outline

Names in group:	Class: Due Date:	Teacher's Name: Class: Due Date:				
Focus Topic: Poison Gas in World War I						
Sub-Topic: What kinds were used and how were they made? Sub-points:	Sub-Topic: How was poison gas used during the war? Sub-points:	Sub-Topic: What effects did poison gas have? Sub-points:				
Conclusion:						

Oral	Visual/Digital	Written
panel discussion dramatization role play radio broadcast interview talk with visuals	slide show or overhead transparencies picture story models/ diagrams charts, graphs, maps film or video bulletin board display web page presentation on computer	report booklet newspaper letter or diary poem play memoir

- 10. Consider a variety of possible formats or a combination of ways to present your research report.
- 11. Be sure to include a list of all the resources you used to prepare your report in a section called "References" or "Bibliography" at the end of your report. You can find examples of the Modern Language Association (MLA) documentation style by visiting this web site: http://www.english.uiuc.edu/cws/wworkshop/ mlamenu.htm.

Step V Personal Learning

12. Once you have completed or presented your report, reflect on it. Evaluate what you have done and think about what you might do differently next time to improve your work. Classmates or your teacher can also help you with this evaluation process.

Try It!

- 1. Choose one of the following topics on World War I and prepare a research report.
- a) trench warfare
- d) aircraft
- b) poison gas
- e) submarines
- c) tanks
- f) role of women



Activities

Understand Facts and Concepts

1. Add these new terms to your Factfile.

trench warfare

no-man's land Western Front

Battle of Ypres

Battle of the Somme

Vimy Ridge Passchendaele 11 November 1918 Canadian War Memorials Fund

dogfight air ace Black Flight **U**-boat

convoy system

Lusitania

2. Write a descriptive paragraph about trench warfare using words from the following list. Refer to the diagram on page 84 for help.

duckboards no-man's land

sap sniper trench foot dugout

trench mouth machine gun fire communication trench exploding shells

traverses

- 3. Why were Canadian troops singled out as storm troops during the war?
- 4. What new strategies did Canadian General Arthur Currie use at the Battle of Vimy Ridge?
- 5. Using a mind map, outline the contributions of Canadians to the war in the air and at sea.

Think and Communicate

- 6. Create a photo essay or scrapbook entitled "Canadians in World War I." Divide your photo essay or scrapbook into topics such as the following:
 - a) Life in the Trenches
 - b) In the Heat of Battle
 - c) Behind the Lines
 - d) Canada's Air Aces
 - e) Canadians at Sea
 - f) The Tragedy of War

Research the photos and include detailed descriptions of them in your presentation. You could also intersperse first-hand accounts from Canadian soldiers.

- 7. a) You are a soldier on the front lines. Would you rather attack or defend a trench? Explain.
 - b) Imagine you are generals called in to plan an attack on an enemy position much like Vimy Ridge. Discuss your strategy and tactics. Outline the stages of your attack and how you will use the troops and weapons at your disposal. Use sketch diagrams, clearly outline your plan of attack in steps, and indicate the expected results. Exchange your plan with other groups for evaluation.
- 8. Soldiers are frequently expected to fight in intolerable conditions. At Passchendaele, it was almost impossible to carry on trench warfare in the mud of the battlefield. Many believe the battle should have been stopped because of the conditions and the high number of casualties. Yet, the commander ordered the fighting to continue.
 - a) Would soldiers ever be justified in refusing the order to fight? Why?
 - b) Do you think military leaders were to blame for the high number of casualties? Why?

- c) Write statements a commander in the battle might have made to defend his position. Then write a number of counterarguments. Role play an interview with the commander in your class.
- 9. Work in groups. You are reporters at the Battle of Ypres or Passchendaele. You have witnessed the Canadians taking a severe beating from the enemy and suffering heavy casualties. Discuss how you would report the battle. If you describe the battle accurately, you could demoralize the people at home. On the other hand, if you do not tell what happened, you could mislead Canadians and give them false hope. What do you think you should do? Write and record a short radio report. Listen to the reports from other groups. Make comparisons and evaluate the effects of the reports.
- 10. a) Explain why Germany thought it was necessary to sink all ships in enemy waters, including ships of neutral nations and passenger vessels.
 - b) Was the sinking of a civilian ship a justifiable act in a time of war? Debate the issue.

Apply Your Knowledge

- 11. Memorials are objects (often statues or plaques) or traditions (special holidays) established in memory of important people or events. People have created many memorials associated with World War I. Each year on 11 November, for example, we celebrate Remembrance Day. With a few moments of silence and special ceremonies around the world, we remember the many people who died in the war.
 - a) Discuss why memorials are important. Which people or events do you feel should be remembered about World War I?
 - b) Find more information about some famous World War I memorials or visit some memorials in your community. How do they make you feel? Why?
 - c) Create your own memorials for World War I. You can use a variety of media—sculptures, posters, collections of memoirs, videos, audiotapes, ceremonies, or web pages.
- 12. Which media (newspapers, television, radio, etc.) were used to report on battles in World War I? Today television and the Internet are major sources of news. Have television and the Internet improved media coverage of wars? Discuss your point of view and give examples.
- 13. Research the lives of prominent Canadian individuals associated with World War I. Consider soldiers, artists, leaders, and social reformers. Examples include Sir Arthur Currie, Max Aitken (Lord Beaverbrook), Jerry Jones, Francis Pegahamagabow, Captain Roy Brown, Sam Hughes, and Nellie McClung. Prepare a short biography or role play interviews with these people for the class. Discuss how you think these individuals contributed to the development of Canada's identity during World War I.

Get to the Source

14. The soldiers in the trenches must often have wondered what they were doing there. One soldier recalled:

It seemed that [the Germans] didn't want to be there any more than we did. But it seemed to be that somebody else was manipulating the strings behind the line, and we were just put there to work out a game. It wasn't really hatred. Only sometimes you did hate, when you see your chums and your friends get shot. It would be pretty hard on you that way, and you could say you'd hate for a while, but not necessarily hate that you wanted to kill. But you had to kill or be killed, if you wanted to survive....

Sometimes at that time I felt, well, it's so unnecessary. A bunch of men ...a hundred yards away ... you could talk to them and you could hear them talking, hear them working, and here you was [sic], you've got to make an attack. And you had to kill them or get killed. And you would sometimes wonder what it was all about.

Source: Bill Boyd in The Great War and Canadian Society: An Oral History (1978), p. 134.

- a) Most soldiers went to war in 1914 full of enthusiasm and with a sense of adventure. Contrast this soldier's view with the mood of most volunteers at the beginning of the war.
- b) How does this soldier describe his role in the war? How much do you think soldiers in the trenches knew about the plans of generals in battles? Why do you think this was so?
- c) Given this soldier's feelings, what effects do you think years of battle would have on him if he survived?
- 15. A Japanese soldier in the war recalled a chilling incident when the Japanese platoon fought at Hill 145.

A shell exploded near our platoon. I heard a Japanese cry, Tm hit!' It was Narita. He had terrible head wounds and died very quickly. The platoon commander was also killed by the same blast. Tada was killed later in the day. Sato and I were fortunate and got through Hill 145 without a scratch. Later we wrote to the relatives as we had promised our dead comrades.

During the battle a German charged me with a bayonet. I parried and went for his chest. I missed and the bayonet got him on the wrist. I was about to make my second thrust when I heard him cry, 'Mother!' I thought of my aged mother in Japan and stopped. I made him my prisoner. He was an 18-year-old boy straight from high school.

-Roy Ito, We Went to War (1984), p. 57.

- a) How does this soldier's account illustrate the terrible personal losses during the war?
- b) What effect did the young German boy's cry have on the Japanese Canadian soldier? Why?

War on the Home Front



Total War

World War I was the first "total" war of the twentieth century. It was "total" in the sense that it enlisted the efforts, energies, and passions of civilians as well as soldiers. Vast armies of citizen soldiers replaced the elite professional armies of the past. In battles and bombings, civilians were targeted as well as soldiers. People on the home fronts were enlisted to give full support to the battle fronts. Every effort was made to secure victory. People of all ethnic identities,

women, children, elderly, poor, and wealthy participated in the war effort. Countries gathered all their resources and geared their industries to pump out war supplies. This war affected the lives of everyone.

The Canadian government issued the following advice for the home during the war.



Advice for the Home

- 2. Remake leftover bread into new bread, cake, or pudding. 3. Instead of one beefless day, why not try for six to make up for 1. Use nut-butter or margarine.
- 4. Eat as little cake and pastry as you can. 5. Use oats, corn, barley, and rye instead of wheat.

- 6. Use ham and pork bones in other dishes.
- 7. Chew your food thoroughly—you will be satisfied with less. 8. All kinds of cold cereal can be saved, and when not enough to
 - roll into balls to fry, they can be used in batter cakes and corn 10. Mix your own cleanser (use white sand, washing soda, soap,
 - 11. Fifty million dollars is thrown away in garbage cans annually. 12. Do not display the roast of meat on the table. It is an induce-

 - ment to eat more than you need. 13. Do not eat both butter and jam with bread.

- 1. If you were living in Canada during World War I, what effects do you think the war would have on your everyday life?
- 2. Brainstorm actions you think the Canadian government might have to take during the war. Suggest reasons for each action.



Support for 🕻 the War Effort

During World War I, people on the home front were encouraged to do all they could to support the troops overseas. Posters, patriotic community groups, and government campaigns suggested that no sacrifice should be spared to ensure a victory in Europe. Many people planted "victory gardens" to produce as much food as possible. They reduced the amount of food they ate and tried to waste as little as possible. Meals contained less meat, butter, sugar, and bread so that these foods could be sent overseas. Canada was shipping vast quantities of food to the fighting forces and civilian populations of other Allied countries.

Although Black Canadians were discriminated against in Canada, many women worked for the war effort. These women worked through the Coloured Women's Club of Montreal during the war.



On the wheat fields of the West, thousands of students were often dismissed from school early to help bring in the harvests. Farm women worked long hours in the fields, and women from the cities also lent a hand. They were needed to replace the farm workers who were fighting overseas.

Groups of women of all ages also met regularly to organize community fund raisers and to roll bandages for the troops. Every community held card games, dances, bazaars, and variety shows. The profits from these evenings were used to send soap, writing paper, pencils, and candy to the troops. Some groups also raised money for war victims and war relief.

Not all groups were made up of women of British heritage. Many other ethnic communities including Chinese, Japanese, Jewish, Italian, Aboriginal, and Black women and men also raised funds and contributed what they could. Women of the Six Nations organized a Women's Patriotic League in 1914. It raised money through garden parties and tag days for Six Nations soldiers overseas. Aboriginal people on the Tyendenaga Reserve near Deseronto, Ontario, allowed some of their land to be used for a flying school during the war. Polish organizations worked with the Red Cross to send money, food, and clothing for war relief in Poland, Chinese women held Rice Bowl festivals and

bazaars to raise money for war victims. The Coloured Women's Club of Montreal worked with the Red Cross to provide support for the war effort overseas.

Many of these ethnic communities were discriminated against in Canada during this period. They faced racism and intolerance, and did not have the right to vote. However, they were eager to show their loyalty and support the war effort.

Terror on the Home Front

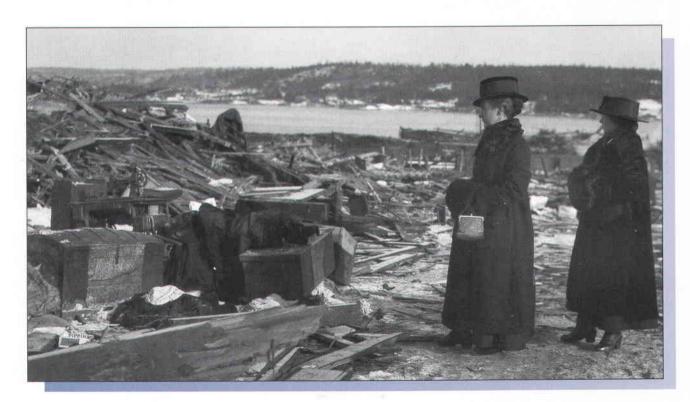
No battles ever took place on Canadian soil during World War I. But from the beginning of the war, there were fears of sabotage and suspicions about spies in Canada. Even before war was declared, Britain warned Canada to take precautions. Militia were posted at major bridges, canals, and railways to guard against sabotage.

Early on the morning of 6 December 1917, however, the horrors of the war did come to the doorsteps of Canadians. A terrible explosion rocked the city of Halifax. Halifax was a major shipping port in the war. Most of the North American convoys with supplies for Europe set out from Halifax.

On that morning in 1917, the *Mont Blanc*, a French munitions ship carrying a cargo of explosives, collided with the Belgian vessel *Imo* in the harbour. Almost 3000 tonnes of explosives were set off. The blast levelled large sections of Halifax and was heard all over the province. It was even felt in Sydney, over 320 km away. Fires roared through the wooden buildings of the city. A huge tidal wave swamped other ships in the harbour and tossed them in pieces onto the shore. Two thousand people were killed and thousands more were injured or left homeless.

The explosion was one of the worst disasters in Canadian history. It is said that,

Halifax, after the devastating explosion in 1917.



until the atomic bomb was dropped on Hiroshima in 1945, the explosion in Halifax was the biggest artificial explosion ever recorded. All that was ever found of the Mont Blanc was a cannon and part of an anchor that landed over 3 km away.

Within hours, however, aid was on its way from neighbouring towns. Within two days, a ship from Boston arrived with over \$3 million in relief supplies. Thirty million dollars was collected from around the world to help rebuild the city and assist the survivors. American generosity is still celebrated today with a gift of a special Christmas tree shipped from Nova Scotia to Boston each year.





😰 🦃 "Enemy Aliens"

War often has a way of bringing out both the best and worst in people and nations. On the one hand, Canadians were united as never before, making courageous and generous sacrifices for the war effort. On the other hand, the pressures of war also encouraged suspicion, blind intolerance, and personal greed.

When war broke out, there were about 500 000 German, Austrian, and Hungarian people living in Canada. Others, such as the Ukrainians, had come from the territories or allies of the German and Austrian empires. At first, the government urged that these citizens be treated fairly. During the Laurier years, they had been welcomed into Canada. Many had come to escape militarism and oppression in their home countries. They had become successful farmers, business people, and workers in Canada's industries.

But as war fever turned to hysteria, these people were viewed with suspicion and even hatred. Rumours of spies and sabotage, including fears that enemies were planning to blow up the Welland Canal, fueled the suspicions. People

demanded that these "enemy aliens" be fired from their jobs and locked up.

In response to the pressures, the government used the War Measures Act to place restrictions on "enemy aliens." The War Measures Act gave the government sweeping powers to ensure "the security, defence, peace, order, and welfare of Canada." People suspected of sympathizing with the enemy could be arrested or searched. Many people labelled as "enemy aliens" were rounded up and sent to internment camps in remote areas.

Over 8597 "enemy aliens" were held in these labour camps during World War I. The majority were Ukrainians. Conditions in the camps were harsh. The men worked long hours and were often poorly fed and clothed. Other "enemy aliens" were forced to register with their local police and report on a regular basis. Some had their homes or businesses vandalized.

Mr Spade, who was German, lived at 2 or 4 Jersey Avenue in Toronto. At that time we lived at number 14. This happened after supper because I didn't see it, but I heard them talk about it. A whole gang of men came around and got him and took him over to Clinton Street They tarred and feathered him. Why I don't know. Except he was a German.

People of German ancestry in the town of Berlin, Ontario, tried to show they were loyal to the British side in the war. They changed the name of the town to Kitchener, after the British War Minister. Carlstadt in Alberta also changed its name to Alderson after the British commander of the Canadians at Ypres. Other "enemy aliens" contributed to the war effort by raising funds. An official investigation by the North-West Mounted Police found that "there was not the slightest trace of orga-



The Spirit Lake enemy alien internment camp in northern Quebec. Rather than live alone, some women joined their husbands in the camps. Describe the conditions of the camp shown in this photo.

nization or concerted movement amongst the enemy aliens" that could be considered a threat to Canada.

Under the War Measures Act, the government also introduced censorship. It banned the publication and distribution of books and magazines in "enemy" languages. When the war ended, the War Measures Act was no longer in effect.

Today, people question the trade-off involved in passing such an act. On the one hand, the government needed special powers to respond to the emergencies of war. To many people, this was a war for democracy. On the other hand, the act meant that Canadians lost some of their basic democratic rights and freedoms.

FAST FORWARD

The War Measures Act has been used three times in Canada's history. The first time was during World War I. The act was introduced again during World War II. In World War II, Japan was an enemy nation and more than 16 000 Japanese Canadians were sent to internment camps under the act. In 1988, the Canadian government formally apologized to these Japanese Canadians and provided them with financial compensation. No apology has ever been extended to those who were interned during World War I, however. Some communities, such as the Ukrainians, are attempting to raise awareness of this fact.

In 1970, the War Measures Act was passed again to deal with the terrorist FLQ crisis in Quebec. It was the first time the act was ever used in peacetime. Prime Minister Pierre Trudeau justified his government's action by saying that the crisis in Quebec represented a threat to overthrow the government. Some people believe it was used more to put down political protest in Quebec, and that there was no real threat to the government. The issue is still controversial.

E

The Changing Role of Government

By 1917, Canadians were feeling the hardships of war. With so many men away fighting and industries booming at home, almost everyone who could work had a job. But the war was beginning to put a strain on the country's resources. Food and fuel became scarce and prices soared. The shortage of coal for furnaces meant many Canadians shivered through the winter of 1917. During the winter of 1918, schools and factories closed because they had no heating.

While many Canadians struggled to deal with these shortages, some business people seemed to be making huge profits during the war. There were cries of profiteering. Some people believed a few businessmen were stockpiling food and fuel until prices rose so high, the goods could be sold at a big profit.

To deal with these problems and to keep up the war effort, the government

introduced an increasing number of controls. Many of these controls directly affected the everyday lives of Canadians. Before the war, the government in Ottawa seemed distant to most people. It had little real effect on their day-to-day lives. The war changed that. Government-appointed fuel controllers promoted "heatless days" to conserve coal. Food controllers urged Canadians to eat less and waste nothing. Government officials introduced "Meatless Mondays" and "Fuelless Sundays."

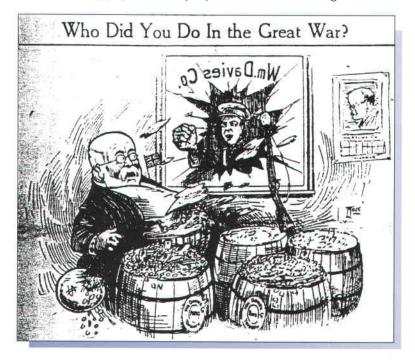
By the fall of 1918, Canadians were buying "war bread" that was made with some flour substitutes. By a system of "honour rationing," people limited themselves to a pound and a half of butter and two pounds of sugar a month. Honour rationing meant that people were expected to reduce the amount of food they ate voluntarily. Anyone caught hoarding or stockpiling food, however, could be fined or jailed. Other controls included a ban on the sale and drinking of alcohol.

Keeping up the war effort was also expensive. By 1918, the war was costing Canada over \$1 million a day! The government launched a major campaign urging people to buy **Victory Bonds**. Citizens who bought the bonds were lending money to the government for the war effort. After the war, the bonds could be cashed in at a profit. Business people also lent money to the government—in total over \$1 billion. The loans would be paid back with interest when the war was over.

Children played a part by buying Thrift Stamps. Each stamp cost 25¢ and was stuck on a card. When \$4.00 worth of stamps were bought, the child received a War Savings Stamp. A War Savings Stamp could be cashed in for \$5.00 in 1924.

In another effort to raise finances for the war, the government introduced a

Canada's tremendous wartime production was not without its scandalous side. This 1917 cartoon shows Joseph Flavelle, chair of the Imperial Munitions Board. Flavelle's meat-packing company was said to have done very well as a result of the war and gained Flavelle the title of "Sir Lardship."



business profits tax and income tax for the first time. Income tax was supposed to be a "temporary measure," but as we know, it has never been abolished! Taxes were also placed on tea, coffee, tobacco, cars, and trains. Such measures, however, were not enough. During the war, the Canadian government's debt increased phenomenally from \$463 million in 1913 to \$2.46 billion by 1918.

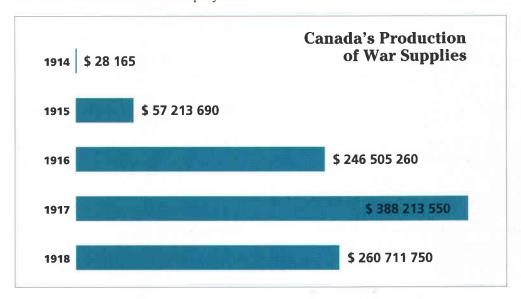


The government also took a greater role in the country's economy. Before 1914, few factories in Canada were capable of producing munitions (military weapons and equipment). After war was declared, factories were quickly reorganized to produce war supplies. The first war materials Canadian factories produced were poor quality. However, after government leaders organized an Imperial Munitions Board, factories began to turn out quality munitions at an astounding rate. Plants manufacturing airplanes, shells, and ships sprang up across the country. By 1918, 300 000 Canadians were employed in

these factories and one-third of the shells fired by the armies of the British Empire were made in Canada. Textile, pulp and paper, steel, and food factories also boomed during the war.

The government urged farmers to produce as much as they could. The wheat crop in 1915 was the largest in Canadian history. In the following years, however, crops fell off badly. In 1917, a Board of Grain Supervisors (which became the Canadian Wheat Board in 1918) took over wheat production and distribution. The government also supervised the large quantities of fish, pork, beef, and cheese that were sent overseas.

By 1917, Britain's coffers were beginning to run dry. It could not afford to buy all that Canadian factories could produce. But in that year, the United States entered the war. It quickly became a major market for Canada's munitions (including new warships and aircraft), food, and industrial products. A War Trades Board was formed to work closely with the United States and to manage imports, exports, and problems of scarcity. Canada's economy continued to boom until the end of the war.







IMPACT ON SOCIETY

POSTERS IN WORLD WAR I

One way for the government to encourage support of the war effort was through a massive poster campaign. Since television had not yet been invented and not everyone owned a radio, posters were the most effective means of getting a message across. Colourful posters were put up on street corners, in post offices, and in other public places where everyone could see them. They were also printed in magazines and newspapers. The posters were part of a major propaganda campaign to back the war effort and promote the Allied cause. **Propaganda** is a systematic spreading of ideas influencing people to support a particular cause or point of view.



- List the different purposes for which posters were used by the government.
- 2. What major images are used in each poster? Why do you think these images were used?
- 3. Summarize the message of each poster in a sentence.
- 4. a) What reasons do the posters suggest for supporting the war effort? b) Do the posters show a bias? Explain.
- 5. How successful do you think these posters would be? Why?
- 6. What means of communication does the government use today to get messages across to the people? What kinds of messages does the government send out? Give some specific examples.
- 7. Design your own posters. In groups, create posters which could be used to:
 - · recruit soldiers
 - encourage the purchase of war bonds
 - help reduce food consumption
 - · recruit children to work in the war effort.

New Roles for Women

World War I brought other great changes, especially to the lives of Canadian women. As soon as the war began, hundreds of Canadian women volunteered to work overseas as nurses or ambulance drivers. Many worked in field hospitals just behind the front-line trenches. One operating room nurse wrote in a letter home, "We ... had 291 operations in ten nights, so that will give you a fair idea of a week's work."

Women also played an important part in the war effort at home. With the general shortage of labour in Canada, the number of women employed in industry rose dramatically. Thirty thousand Canadian women worked in munitions factories and other war industries. These jobs in heavy industry would have been considered unsuitable for women before 1914. Working conditions were difficult and sometimes dangerous. Women also drove buses and streetcars. They worked in banks, on police forces, and in civil service jobs.

I had a very hard job. It had to be that you run a machine of weights into the shell, and the weight had to be just exact. Quite a few of them didn't have the patience.

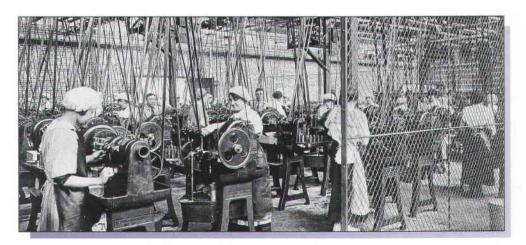
It was interesting work but very hard on your nerves. There was a machine went on fire. This friend from Beaverton was on the machine that blew up, and I run to her and we had to go down on our hands and knees and crawl out of the place. So we had a little experience of what it was to be right in a war.

In wartime, there were few men left to work on the farms. Women on the farms brought in the harvests and city women were also recruited to go out and help.

We decided to become farmerettes when we read in the paper that there was a big crop and they needed people to come, and there were no men. So this friend and I said that we would go. We volunteered. Masses of young people went out and brought that all in.

Groups of women of all ages met regularly to knit socks for the soldiers and to roll bandages. They arranged many of the card games, dances, and variety shows that helped fund the parcels sent to the troops.

I wanted to help do my share, and I joined the Red Cross and helped roll



During the war, women worked in munitions factories, sometimes under dangerous conditions.

bandages and knit socks. My first ones were big enough to fit an elephant, and after that, I became very proficient—so proficient that I knit a pair of socks a day without any trouble.

You see, everybody felt they had to do something. You just couldn't sit there. There was a phrase, 'Doing your bit' Well, that was pretty well the keynote feeling all through that First World War. Everybody was extremely patriotic, and everybody wanted to 'do a bit.' If there's anything we could do to help, we must do it.

The Struggle for Women's Rights

Since women were doing so much for the war effort, they wanted a share in making decisions about the country. It was during World War I that an important step forward was taken in Canada for women's rights. At the beginning of the twentieth century, women in many countries had begun to organize themselves to gain the right to vote. Members of this movement in Canada were called **suffragists**.

one of Canada's great social reformers. She wrote, "Certainly women belong in the

Nellie McClung was a suffragist and

home, but not 24 hours a day. They should have exactly the same freedom as men." When World War I broke out, it helped to prove that Nellie McClung was right. Women did jobs once performed only by men. The war brought women together in volunteer organizations and employment. They began to share ideas and work for political equality with men. They also took active roles in journalism and campaigned for better public health, working conditions, and wages. They pushed for equal opportunities in careers such as medicine and law, and for the right to own property.

Suffragists campaigned enthusiastically for women's suffrage (the right to vote). Their leaders included Dorothy Davis in British Columbia, Margaret Gordon in Ontario, Emily Murphy and Alice Jamieson in Alberta, and the dynamic Nellie McClung in Manitoba. The first breakthrough for women's suffrage came in Manitoba. In 1916, women were given the right to vote in that province. Within months, Saskatchewan and Alberta also granted women suffrage. Ontario and British Columbia followed suit the next vear.

But the main goal was to win the right to vote in federal elections. In the federal election of December 1917, the Wartime **Elections Act** granted the vote to the mothers, sisters, and wives of soldiers in the Armed Forces. Canadian nurses serving in the Forces could also vote. By the time the war had ended, the right to vote in federal elections had been extended to almost all women in Canada over the age of 21. The Dominion Elections Act (1920) also gave women the right to run for election to Parliament. However, Aboriginal women (and most Aboriginal men), Asians, and many other members of minority groups in Canada were not allowed to vote.

Nellie McClung, Alice Jamieson, and Emily Murphy. This famous photo was taken on the day women won the right to vote in Manitoba, 1916.



SPOTLIGHT ON ...

Nellie McClung

"Never retract, never explain, never apologize—just get the thing done and let them howl," said Nellie McClung. Nellie McClung was one of Canada's great social reformers. She was a tireless worker for women's rights and political suffrage (the right to vote).

Born in Owen Sound, Ontario, in 1873, she moved with her family to Manitoba when she was seven years old. At 16, she had become a teacher and caused a stir when she allowed her female students to join

in lunchtime football games. In 1890, she married and found she shared many common views with her mother-in-law, Annie McClung. Annie McClung was president of the Manitou chapter of the Women's Christian Temperance Union (WCTU). Nellie joined the WCTU, which provided help to people in need, campaigned against the ill effects of alcohol, and supported the rights of women to have a voice in social and political affairs. The WCTU raised petitions, acted as a pressure group on governments, and encouraged debate on key issues to meet its goals.

By 1911, Nellie McClung was increasingly involved in journalism and political activism. She was a founding member of the Political Equality League in Manitoba and spoke out for women's suffrage across the province. Women's pleas for the vote, however, fell on deaf ears in the provincial government. In 1914, Premier Roblin responded to the women's requests with the words, "Now you forget all this nonsense about women voting. Nice women don't want to vote."

Nellie McClung and her supporters decided to fight back by staging a mock parliament in Winnipeg's Walker Theatre. The parliament was run



by women and Nellie was premier. Roles were reversed and men were asking for the vote. In a speech, Nellie cleverly turned the tables on the premier's words. "If men are given the vote," she declared, "they will vote too much. Politics unsettles men. Unsettled men mean unsettled bills—broken furniture, broken vows, and divorce Men cannot be trusted with the ballot. Men's place is on the farm."

The performance was a roaring

success. When World War I broke out some months later, women proved that they could perform the same jobs as men. They provided massive support on the home front for the soldiers overseas. Governments had to admit that the war could not have been won without the support of women. In 1916, women made their breakthrough in Canada. They first gained the right to vote in the province of Manitoba. By 1918, they had gained the right to vote in federal elections.

- 1. Nellie McClung wrote: "War is not inevitable.... War is a crime committed by men, and therefore when enough people say it shall not be, it cannot be. This will not happen until women are allowed to say what they think of war." Do you agree? Why or why not?
- 2. Governments did not grant Asian and Aboriginal women, women of colour, and women of other minority groups the vote during the war, even though they also worked for the war effort and campaigned for their rights through their own organizations. Why do you think this was so?

Dates	Women	Gained	Suffrage	in	Canada
--------------	-------	---------------	-----------------	----	--------

Dates Women Gameu Surrage in Canada		
Province	Suffrage (The Vote)	First Woman Elected
Manitoba	January 1916	June 1920
Saskatchewan	March 1916	June 1919
Alberta	April 1916	June 1917
British Columbia	April 1917	June 1918
Ontario	April 1917	August 1943
Nova Scotia	April 1918	June 1960
New Brunswick	April 1919	October 1960
Prince Edward Island	May 1922	May 1970
Newfoundland	April 1925	May 1930
Quebec	April 1940	December 1961
Federal Dominion of Canada	Close relatives of member of armed force September 1917; all women May 1918	December 1921 s

Dates Women Gained Suffrage in Other Parts of the World

New Zealand	1892	
Australia	1902	
Finland	1906	
Norway	1913	
Denmark	1915	
Britain	1918	
Netherlands	1919	
Germany	1919	
United States	1920	
Sweden	1921	
Turkey	1934	
Brazil	1946	
France	1946	
Switzerland	1971	
Liechtenstein	1986	





🚇 🌓 Conscription

One of the greatest crises in Canada during the war occurred in 1917. It centred around the issue of conscription. Conscription means that all able-bodied men would be required to join the army. They would have no choice. Enlistment would no longer be on a voluntary basis only.

The war had dragged on much longer than anyone had thought. By 1917, the death toll was mounting and the number of volunteers was dwindling.

Early in 1917, Prime Minister Robert Borden left to visit the Canadian soldiers at the front. Borden was shocked by the information he received. Casualties were mounting daily on the Western Front. Military officials urged Borden to send even more Canadian troops to Europe. In Canada, volunteer enlistments were not keeping up with the number of men killed or wounded. Borden was concerned. The slaughter of men in the war was horrendous, but he became convinced that the war could not be won without more rein-

forcements. He returned home and solemnly asked Parliament to pass a conscription bill.

A Country Divided

The mention of conscription brought a storm of protest in some parts of Canada, especially among French Canadians. Many English Canadians believed that Quebec was not doing its part in the war. English-Canadian newspapers pointed out that Ontario had provided 63 per cent of the volunteers in proportion to its population. Manitoba and Saskatchewan provided 81 per cent, Alberta 92 per cent, British Columbia 104 per cent, and the Maritime provinces 38 per cent. Quebec had provided only 20 per cent of the volunteers in proportion to its population.

Why were there fewer volunteers from Quebec? The majority of Quebeckers were farmers, many with large families. Fewer farmers than city people joined the Armed Forces since farmers were considered essential to produce food for the war effort. But most French Canadians also did not

Enlistment/Casualty Rate for 1917

Month	Enlistments	Casualties
January	9 194	4 396
March	6 640	6 161
May	6 407	13 457
July	3 882	7 906
September	3 588	10 990
November	4 019	30 741

share the enthusiasm that English Canadians felt for Britain's war. They did not believe that their sons should be forced to join the war. Many also did not feel any real tie to their country of origin, France. They felt they had been deserted by France when they were conquered by British forces in 1760. French language rights had been taken away in Manitoba and other western provinces, and in Ontario schools. French Canadians felt they were being treated like second-class citizens in Canada.

Sir Sam Hughes, as Minister of Militia, had stirred further protest in Quebec when he appointed a Protestant clergyman to supervise recruiting in that province. Quebeckers were mostly Roman Catholics. Training programs for French-Canadian volunteers were also in English, even though the men often did not speak the language.

Very few French-Canadian officers received important army posts. Only one French-Canadian regiment—the 22nd, the famous "Vandoos"—had been sent to the Western Front to fight. It seemed to many French Canadians that Hughes's policies had done little to encourage their greater participation in the war. Eventually, Hughes was dismissed by Borden, but not before he caused long-term resentment in Quebec.

The opposition to conscription in Quebec was led by Henri Bourassa.

Bourassa summarized his position in a pamphlet published on 4 July 1917.

We are opposed to further enlistments for the war in Europe, whether by conscription or otherwise, for the following reasons:

- Canada has already made a military display, in men and money, proportionately superior to that of any nation engaged in the war
- any further weakening of the [labour force] of the country would seriously handicap agricultural production and other essential industries
- an increase in the war budget of Canada spells national bankruptcy
- it threatens the economic life of the nation and, eventually, its political independence
- conscription means national disunion and strife, and would thereby hurt the cause of the Allies to a much greater extent than the addition of a few thousand soldiers to their fighting forces could bring them help and comfort.

Conscription brought a storm of protest in Quebec.





SPOTLIGHT ON ...

Robert Borden

In January 1916, Canada's Prime Minister, Robert Borden, wrote in a letter to the British government:

It can hardly be expected that we shall put 400 000 or 500 000 men in the field and willingly accept the position of having no more voice and receiving no more consideration than if we were toy automata.



Borden never sent the letter, but it expressed one of his deepest convictions. Borden was an imperialist, but he was determined that Canada should have an independent position within the Empire. Canada's great sacrifice during the war only increased his determination. During the nine years he was prime minister, Canada won greater independence from Britain and gained international recognition for its achievements in the war.

Borden was prime minister of Canada during very trying times. The challenges of leading Canada through World War I were immense. Borden did not have the flare and charisma of some other prime ministers, but he was hard-working, methodical, and steadfast. As a young man in Nova Scotia, he had had to work hard to get an education first as a teacher and then as a lawyer. In 1896 he joined the Conservative party and helped to rebuild it after years of disarray following the death of John A. Macdonald. In 1911, Borden defeated Laurier in the federal election. After just three years in office, he was plunged into World War I.

Under Borden's leadership, Canada raised, trained, and equipped a large fighting force during the war. The country's businesses, industries, agriculture, and transportation were all reorganized to support the war effort. New measures were introduced to finance the war. On the international front, Borden persistently insisted that Canada

should have a greater voice in the way the war was waged. He was sometimes appalled at the senseless slaughter of soldiers and the incompetence of the British generals. After Passchendaele, he bluntly told Britain's prime minister, "... if there is ever a repetition of the battle of Passchendaele, not a Canadian soldier will leave the

shores of Canada as long as the Canadian people entrust the government of Canada to my hands."

In 1917, Borden's persistence paid off. Canada and the other dominions of the Empire were represented at the Imperial War Conference. Britain was finally recognizing that it could not ask for yet more soldiers without at least consulting the dominions. At the conference, Borden played a major role in drafting a resolution that promised the dominions autonomy (complete control over their own affairs) after the war and an "adequate voice" in Empire foreign policy. At the Paris Peace Conference after the war, Borden ensured Canada had a voice independent from Britain.

But Borden's leadership was not without crisis and controversy. He faced a country that was bitterly divided when he introduced conscription in 1917. His government interned "enemy aliens" and with the Wartime Elections Act, unjustly took away the vote from conscientious objectors and all those born in an enemy country. Finally, exhausted from the war and with failing health, Borden resigned as prime minister in 1920.

- 1. How did Borden contribute to Canada's growing sense of identity during World War I?
- 2. Would you consider Robert Borden a "great" Canadian prime minister? Justify your answer.

More moderate French-Canadian opinion was represented by Sir Wilfrid Laurier, the leader of the federal Liberal party and former prime minister. Laurier had struggled all his life to keep Canada united. He did not support conscription. He realized it was an issue that could tear the country apart. Laurier was disillusioned when 22 Liberals from Ontario, the West, and the Maritimes voted with the government for the conscription bill. Only the Liberals in Quebec and a handful of English-speaking Liberals stood with Laurier against conscription.

Borden also knew that conscription was a dangerous policy. It could divide French and English Canadians. Farmers would also protest the loss of their remaining sons and farm hands. Still, Borden felt the shortage of troops was so severe that he had no other choice. The Military Service Bill was passed in the summer of 1917. The bill made conscription a law. Military service became compulsory for all males between the ages of 20 and 45. Only men in vital wartime production jobs, those who were sick, or conscientious objectors (those for whom fighting was against their religious or other beliefs) did not have to join the Forces.

The Election of 1917

With a general election coming in December 1917, the government passed two further bills. They were both meant to strengthen Borden's position on conscription. The **Military Voters Act** allowed soldiers overseas to vote. More important was the Wartime Elections Act. It gave the vote to female relatives of soldiers. These women could be expected to vote for conscription and a government that promised to support their loved ones overseas. The **Wartime Elections Act** also took away the vote from people born in enemy countries or who

spoke the language of an enemy country, and conscientious objectors.

The election of 1917 was particularly bitter. Conservatives and Liberals who believed in conscription formed a **Union government**. Voters were asked by the Union government: "Who would the Germans vote for?" Laurier and his followers were accused of letting down the soldiers at the front. The election results saw Borden and the Union government returned with an overwhelming majority, but with only three seats in Quebec.

The split in Canada that Laurier had feared for so long had occurred. There were riots in Montreal and Quebec City against conscription. Four people were killed and many were injured. Troops had to be sent in with machine guns to restore order.

Emotions among other Canadians also ran high. Many people saw support of the war effort as a moral duty. They felt justified in putting down others who did not fulfil this duty. Conscription and the dire need for men overseas hardened these attitudes. Men who had not signed up to fight overseas were seen as "slackers." One woman admitted:

When you had your own there voluntarily, you hated all those others sitting around having a nice time while yours were being killed. You didn't like them. You'd no respect for them. But I was never one of those or approved of going around handing out white feathers. Do you know that some women did? . . . They actually went to men on the street whom they knew, or if they didn't know them—strong working men—and handed them a white feather.

The white feather was a symbol of cowardice.

Resentment also increased against pacifists. **Pacifists** were against war on the basis of spiritual or moral beliefs. They included Mennonites, Doukhobors, and Quakers who had come to Canada not many years earlier to avoid military service in their home countries and for religious freedom. The Canadian government had guaranteed that they would not have to serve in the military. When the war broke out, however, these people faced hostility and ridicule. They were seen as "shirkers." The fact that Mennonites spoke German heightened suspicion of them.

As conscientious objectors, they were exempt from conscription. The fact that they did not have to fight while others were now obligated to give their lives only increased feelings of bitterness toward them. The government was responding to public opinion when the Wartime Elections Act took away the vote from conscientious objectors. Some Mennonites contributed to the war effort by buying Victory Bonds and working in farming, forestry, road-building, and industry. Few Canadians during the war, however, were willing to acknowledge this contribution.

Other pacifists believed war was a destructive and wasteful way to solve world problems. They supported nonviolent ways to bring about change and to root out the causes of war. The Canadian Women's Peace Party was an example. This group continued to speak for peace and freedom throughout the war.

Did conscription work? The call for conscripts did not begin until 1918. Thousands of men claimed exemption from service. A man could be excused from military service if he had a physical disability, an essential occupation (e.g., farmer), was a conscientious objector, or was a member of the clergy. By the time the war ended in November 1918, only about 45 000 conscripts had reached the battlefield.

Was conscription a success in Canada? Most historians would say no. English Canadians were arguing against French Canadians, Protestants against Roman Catholics, majority against minority. There was widespread disagreement about conscription between farmers and city dwellers, and between civilians and soldiers. National unity seemed a high price to pay for 45 000 soldiers. When the war ended in November 1918, Canada was a divided nation.

Peace: The Treaty of Versailles

Almost five years after the assassination of Archduke Ferdinand at Sarajevo, government leaders met at Versailles, near Paris, to sign the peace treaty. Thirty-two victorious countries were represented, including Canada. Canada was not content just to be part of the British delegation. Borden demanded that Canada be represented as a separate nation at the meetings and at the official signing of the treaty. He argued that Canada deserved a voice in the peace talks because of its major contribution to the war and the Allied victory. Canada was given two seats of its own at the conference. The main decisions, however, were made by the leaders of three countries—Britain, France. and the United States. These countries were referred to as "The Big Three."

The American president Woodrow Wilson suggested that a **League of Nations** be set up to settle future disputes. The League of Nations would be an organization promoting international co-operation. Canada joined the League as an independent nation. Canada had entered World War I as a colony of Britain with no say over its own foreign affairs. By the end of the war, it had gained a new sense of nationhood and international recognition.

Major Terms of the Treaty of Versailles

- Germany must accept the complete independence of Austria, Czechoslovakia, and Poland.
- Poland will allow persons, goods, vessels, carriages, wagons, and mail to pass freely between East Prussia and the rest of Germany over Polish territory. (This was necessary because Poland was given a strip of German territory to provide it with access to the sea at the city of Danzig. This was called the Polish Corridor. It separated East Prussia from the rest of Germany.)
- Germany must give up all its rights and titles to its overseas possessions (colonies in Africa and East Asia).
- After 31 March 1920, the German army must not exceed 100 000 soldiers. The army shall be used only to maintain order within Germany and to control the frontiers. German naval forces must not exceed 6 battleships, 6 light cruisers, 12 destroyers, and 12 torpedo boats. Germans are forbidden to have any submarines. The armed forces of Germany must not include any military air force.
- Germany must accept the responsibility for causing all the loss and damage that the Allies and their citizens have suffered. (This is known as the War Guilt Clause.)
- The Allied governments require Germany to pay for all wartime damages to the civilian population and the property of Allied powers. (These payments are known as reparations.) The amount of the above damage will be determined by an Allied Commission.
- A guarantee is needed to make sure the treaty will be carried out by Germany. Therefore, the German territory west of the Rhine River will be occupied by Allied troops for 15 years.

Prime Minister Robert Borden (centre) at the Paris peace conference. Borden insisted Canada be represented as an independent nation at the talks.





Developing Skills: Interpreting and Comparing Maps

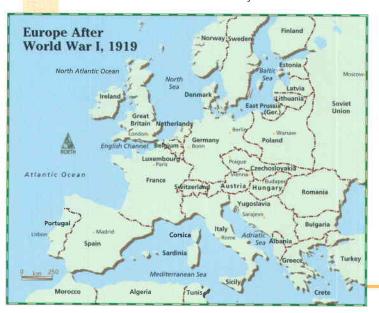
When we look at a world map, we tend to think that the world has always been as it is pictured and always will be. It is difficult to imagine that the boundaries between countries could change overnight—but they have. New countries have been created and some destroyed many times in history.

In 1991, the Soviet Union was dissolved and several new countries emerged. If Quebec separates, the map of Canada could change dramatically. At the end of World War I, the map of Europe also changed dramatically. These changes had a tremendous effect on the way people lived and related to one another.

By comparing maps before and after the changes, you can begin to hypothesize (think) about the effects the changes had on people living in these countries or regions.

Try It!

Select maps of the same area from two different time periods. You can compare maps of Europe in 1914 before World War I (see page 68) and Europe in 1919 after the war, for example. But you could choose other maps, such as Canada at Confederation and Canada today.



Step I Comprehension

The first step is understanding the maps. Ask yourself these questions.

- 1. What does each map show? At what period of time?
- 2. What countries or regions are shown? What symbols are used and what do they represent?

Step II Interpretation

The next step is to gather important information from the maps. In this case, you compare two maps to determine the major changes that occurred over a period of time. Use the following points as a guide.

- 3. Compare the size of Germany before and after the war. Locate and name two countries that received territory in 1919, which formerly belonged to Germany.
- 4. What happened to Austria-Hungary in 1918? Name the newly independent nations that were created in Europe.
- 5. Name and locate four new countries that were created from former Russian territory. To what other countries did Russia lose territory?

Step III Hypothesizing

At this stage, you use the information you have gathered from the maps to draw some conclusions and speculate about possible effects in the future. Consider these questions.

- 6. Locate the Polish Corridor on the map. How might the creation of the Polish Corridor lead to problems among nations in the future?
- 7. How might the creation of a number of new small nations in Europe lead to future territorial disputes?

C Effects of the War on Canada

By 1918, most Canadians were weary of the war. The heady enthusiasm of 1914 was long played out. Rising death tolls. food and fuel shortages, and nervous suspicions had left Canadians exhausted. The war had exacted a heavy cost. A total of 60 661 Canadians had lost their lives. Another 173 000 were wounded or gassed. Many thousands of the injured lived on for vears in veterans' hospitals. For these people, the suffering of war never ended. They were victims who had lost limbs, whose lungs had been destroyed by gas attacks, or who had experienced severe emotional trauma. One veteran described the scars of the war:

I was gassed for a few seconds at Valenciennes in 1918 and became very ill. After a week in the hospital I was able to return to the front. When the war was over, I got a job in an office but by the summer of 1925 I fainted at work several times. My doctor said it was because of the poison in my system caused by my "bad" bottom teeth and that I would have to have them pulled. This did not help me at all. In 1930 I was finally sent

to a doctor in Toronto who asked me if I had been in the Great War. He questioned me further and discovered that I had been gassed in '18. He recommended a partial disability pension, but by 1935 the fainting spells became so frequent that I was put on full pension and have not worked since.

I never could marry and have been living alone for over 40 years.

Another disastrous effect of the war was the deepening resentment between French and English Canadians over conscription. The gulf between Quebec and the rest of the country steadily widened. The hurt, pain, and distrust lingered after the war.

People labelled as "enemy aliens" also suffered serious effects after the war. These people had had their civil rights taken away. Many had lost their jobs or had their homes and businesses vandalized. They had to build new lives for themselves. The Canadian government has never apologized or offered compensation to people interned during World War I.

On the positive side, women had gained the right to vote during the war. World War I had also produced a great boom in Canadian industries. Steel and



The war took a heavy toll in lives and left many mothers, wives, and families suffering from the loss of loved ones.



Netsurfer
To find out about Canada's war
veterans and war memorials,
visit Veterans Affairs Canada at

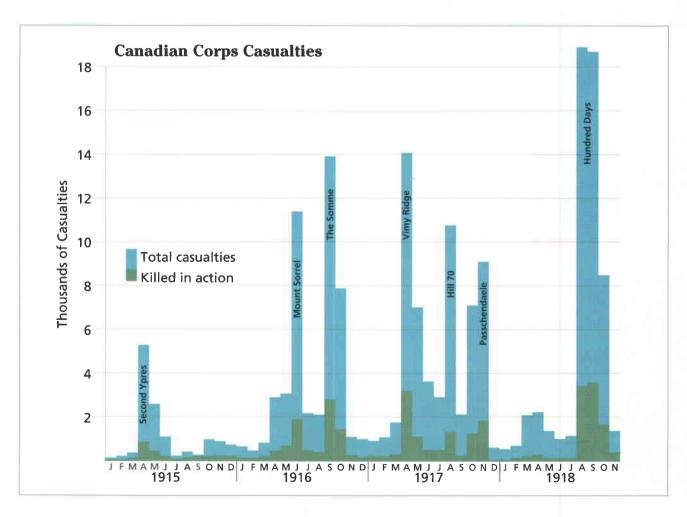
www.vac-acc.qc.ca.

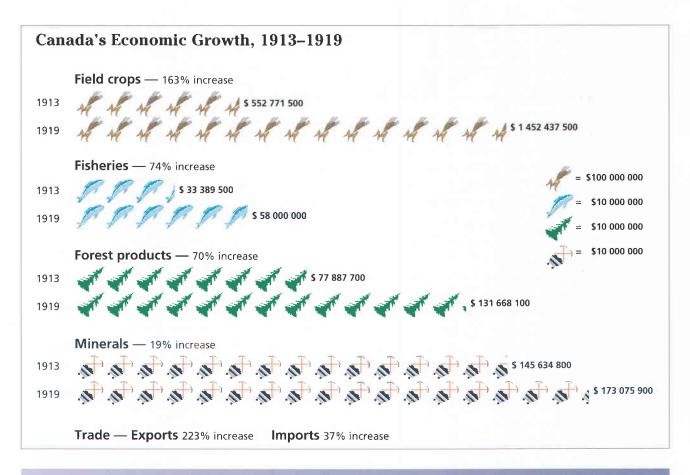
munitions production and manufacturing had grown fantastically. During the war, almost everyone who could work had a job.

Canada also emerged from the war a more independent country. Canada's war effort had earned the country international respect. The outstanding contribution of Canada's soldiers won a separate seat for Canada at the peace conference following the war. Previously, Britain would have signed the peace treaty on behalf of all the British Empire. Now Canada signed the treaty as a separate nation. Canada had achieved a degree of national sovereignty—the right to control its own affairs without interference. Canada was still part

of the British Empire, but Britain had agreed to grant the colonies "autonomy (the right to self-government) within the Empire."

As the decade drew to a close, three of the most important Canadian leaders were also leaving the spotlight of politics. On 19 February 1919, Sir Wilfrid Laurier died of a stroke. With his main opponent gone, Henry Bourassa became less involved in the political scene. Sir Robert Borden, exhausted from leadership during wartime, resigned as leader of the Conservative party in 1920. Three new leaders in Canada were about to emerge—William Lyon Mackenzie King, Arthur Meighen, and J.S. Woodsworth.





Understand Facts and Concepts

1. Add these new terms to your Factfile.

"enemy aliens" War Measures Act

Victory Bonds

propaganda suffragists

Military Voters Act 1917 Wartime Elections Act 1917 Dominion Elections Act 1920

conscription

Military Service Bill 1917 Union Government 1917

pacifists

Treaty of Versailles League of Nations

- 2. Describe how each of the following contributed to the war effort at home.
 - a) women
 - b) workers
 - c) children
 - d) families in their homes
 - e) Aboriginal, Black, Asian, and other ethnocultural communities

- 3. Why did a spirit of excitement and confidence exist in Canada at the outbreak of the war in 1914? How and why did this mood change?
- 4. Explain why these statements are true or false.
 - a) World War I was "total" war.
 - b) During the war, "enemy aliens" posed a threat to Canada.
 - c) The Canadian economy grew as a result of the war.
 - d) Only French Canadians opposed conscription.
 - e) The conscription issue caused division in Canada.
 - f) The war helped women gain the right to vote in Canada.
- 5. a) Explain why Canadians were considered to be part of the British army.
 - b) How did this relationship between Britain and Canada change by the end of the war?

Think and Communicate

- 6. Work in groups. List ways in which the government became involved in the every-day lives of Canadians during World War I. Do you think these actions were justified? Report your ideas to the class.
- 7. Imagine you and your family were considered "enemy aliens" during World War I. What problems would you and your family face at work, in school, and in the community. How would you feel about the actions of the Canadian government? Write a journal entry or letter to the editor expressing your views and experiences.
- 8. Suppose you have a vote on conscription in the parliament of 1917. Will you vote for or against? Evaluate the pros and cons and justify your decision.

Conscription	Pros	Cons	Decision
EST 0			

- 9. a) Refer to the bar graph showing Canadian casualties during World War I on page 126. In which year did Canada suffer the most casualties? Why was the number of casualties in this year significant?
 - b) Refer to the pictograph showing the growth in Canada's economy during the war years on page 127. Which two areas of the economy showed the most growth? Suggest why.
- 10. a) Present evidence that Canada emerged from World War I as a more independent and respected nation.
 - b) Present three facts to support the following statement: "The growth in Canada's economy from 1914 to 1919 was mainly due to World War I."

Apply Your Knowledge

- 11. Canada's economy boomed during World War I largely because of the great demand for food and war products. What problems might have arisen when the war ends? Why?
- 12. Why might Canadians feel that the experiences of World War I made the country better prepared to take control of its own affairs?
- 13. a) Which of the following terms of the Treaty of Versailles do you consider fair treatment of Germany? Explain why.
 - i) the Allies took away all Germany's colonies
 - ii) Germany's army was limited to 100 000 soldiers
 - iii) Germany was held responsible for causing World War I
 - iv) Germany was required to pay reparations
 - v) Germany would not be allowed to have troops in the Rhineland for 15 years
 - b) It has been said that the Treaty of Versailles contained within it the seeds of another war. What do you think this statement means? Do you think it is correct? Why?
- 14. How did World War I contribute to Canada's growing identity? Design a web site on this topic. Decide on what your site should include and create an index of topics or site map. Then discuss the visuals and text you will use for each topic. Present your ideas.

Get to the Source

15. The following poem was written by a Ukrainian Canadian, Dale Zieroth, about his grand-father who had spent time in an "enemy alien" internment camp during the war.

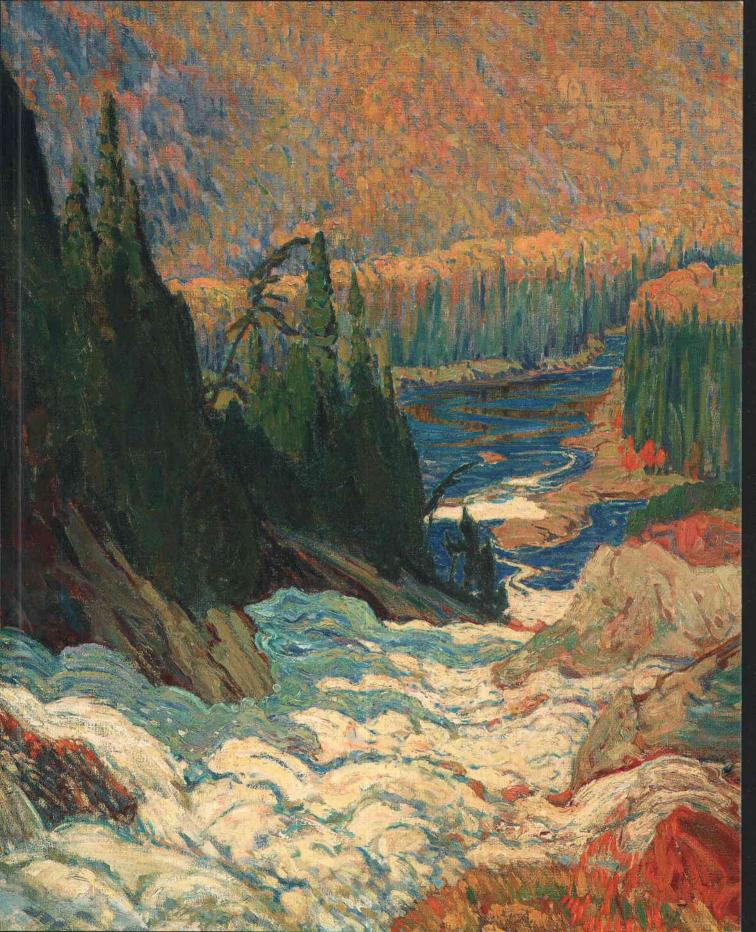
Detention Camp, Brandon, Manitoba
On the morning of the fourth day,
two men were missing. Later, brought back,
they talked for a while
of some part of summer they'd seen,
then they were quiet, turned bitter,
even a little crazed: these received
no letters from the outside and spoke now
of nothing they wished to return to.
Bodies at night would moan, asleep
with others somewhere who dreamt
of them. The sunrise on the wall
became a condition, the sunset a way
of counting days. The prisoners carried

these things close to their bodies. This my grandfather came to know before leaving.

He did not celebrate his homecoming. His wife was older, his children came to him less. Even the sky was not as blue as he'd remembered, and the harvest, three-quarters done, reminded him too often of wasted time, of war in Europe. Winter came too quickly that year and, next spring the turning of the earth held no new surprises.

Source: Dale Zieroth, Clearing: Poems from a Journey (Toronto: House of Anansi, 1973).

- a) How does this poem express the thoughts and feelings of the prisoners in the internment camps?
- b) What long-term effects does this poem suggest the internment camps had?





THE ROARING TWENTIES AND DIRTY THIRTIES

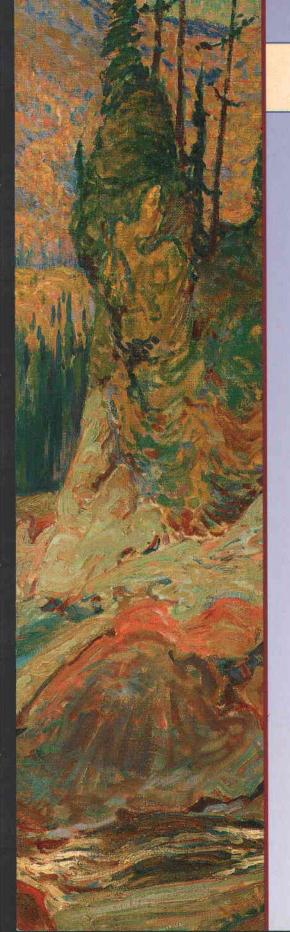
1919-1939

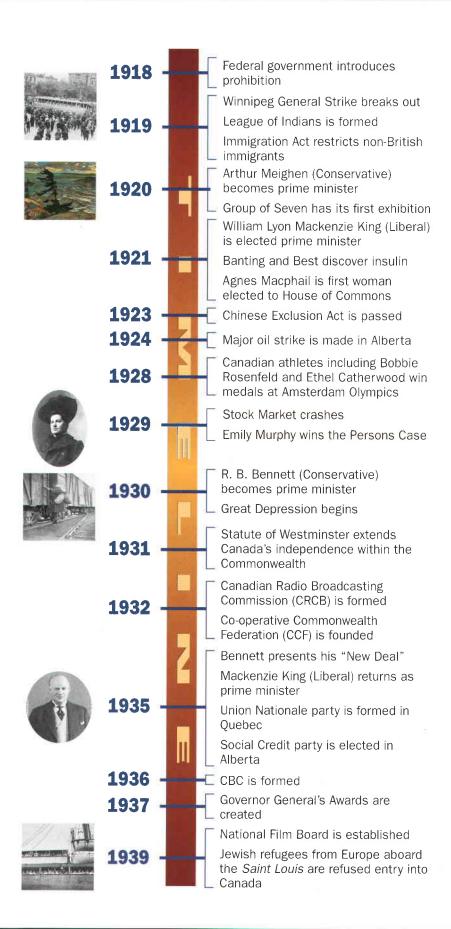
he two decades after World War I were years of turmoil in Canada. In 1919, Canadians hoped for a better life after the hard years of the war. Instead, thousands of people lost their jobs as war-time industries geared down.

It wasn't until the mid-1920s that the economy began to turn around. Gradually, more people could afford new luxuries such as automobiles and radios. People took risks investing in the stock market and buying on credit. At the same time, Canadians were building on a new sense of national identity following the war. The country gained full independence from Britain in 1931. Canadians such as the Group of Seven were developing distinctly Canadian arts.

When the stock market crashed in 1929, the economy went into a downspin. Businesses went bankrupt. Workers were laid off and roamed the country looking for work. The West was hit with devastating drought and plagues of grasshoppers. The Dirty Thirties were a decade of hardship for most Canadians.

- In 1920, Canada's famous Group of Seven artists held their first exhibition. This painting, titled Falls, Montreal River, is by Group of Seven artist J. E. H. MacDonald. What impression of the landscape does this painting create?
- 2. Before this time, most painting was very realistic, focusing on reflecting precise details. How is this painting different?
- 3. a) What makes this painting distinctly Canadian?
 - b) How important do you think it is that Canadians develop their own distinctive arts? Why?





Strands & Topics

Communities: Local. National, and Global



Canadian Identity

- Group of Seven artists establish a Canadian painting style
- Canadian Broadcasting Corporation (CBC), Governor General's Awards, and National Film Board (NFB) are created



External Forces Shaping Canada's Policies

- influence of American culture leads to establishment of Canadian cultural organizations
- controversy arises over Americanization of the Canadian economy
- Canada gains greater autonomy from Britain



French-English Relations

 Union Nationale party led by Maurice Duplessis aims to stop federal government interference in Quebec and to develop Quebec's resources



War, Peace, and Security

- Canada becomes isolationist and resists involvement in foreign conflicts
- immigration is restricted and Canada adopts a closed-door policy toward Asians and Jewish refugees from Europe

Change and Continuity



Population Patterns

- immigration levels drop drastically
- · urbanization continues with development of automobiles and industrialization

 thousands leave the Prairie Provinces and the Maritimes during the 1930s Depression



Impact of Science and Technology

- · Edward Rogers develops the batteryless radio
- · automobiles are mass produced
- · talking films are introduced
- · Banting and Best discover insulin



Canada's International Status and Foreign Policy

 by Statute of Westminster 1931, Canada becomes an independent, self-governing nation within the British Commonwealth

Citizenship and Heritage



Social and Political Movements

- women win representation on the Senate after the Persons Case
- workers organize unions and strikes
- Aboriginal peoples form political organizations
- farmers establish co-operatives



Contributions of Individuals

- Prime Ministers Mackenzie King and R. B. Bennett lead Canada
- Emily Murphy spearheads campaign for appointing women to the Senate
- Frederick Banting and Charles Best discover insulin
- · Joseph Bombardier and Edward S. Rogers are among important inventors and entrepreneurs
- Fred Loft and other Aboriginal leaders organize Aboriginal political movements

· Percy Williams, Lionel Conacher, The Edmonton Grads, and Bobbie Rosenfeld represent important sports figures

Social, Economic, and **Political Structures**



The Economy

- unemployment and rising prices are problems after the war
- industrial development and prosperity return in the mid-1920s
- Canada becomes increasingly dependent on exports of raw materials
- Americans establish branch plants in Canada
- stock market crashes 1929
- Great Depression hits 1930-39



The Changing Role of Government

- government continues policies to assimilate Aboriginal nations
- · immigration is restricted
- some social support programs such as relief payments, old age pensions are introduced
- · new political parties are formed

Methods of Historical Inquiry



Skill Development

- · decision-making
- · creating multi-media presentations
- using simulation games
- · interpreting graphs

Activities

• pp. 157–59, 177–78, 205–07

Expectations

At the end of the unit, you will be able to:

- · evaluate developments in the labour movement
- analyze concerns over the Americanization of the Canadian economy and culture
- · evaluate the role of government in protecting a distinct Canadian identity
- compare economic conditions in the 1920s and 1930s
- · assess the changing relationship between English Canada and Quebec
- · evaluate Canada's immigration policies
- summarize the growth in Canada's autonomy
- evaluate developments in the women's movement
- · describe the contributions of Aboriginal political organizations
- · describe the development of new political parties
- · describe advances in technology and their impact
- evaluate government responses to the Depression
- · apply effective decisionmaking skills
- · use simulation games
- · develop effective multimedia presentations
- · construct and analyze useful charts and graphs



Times of Turmoil

Bloody Saturday

In June 1919, thousands of workers in the city of Winnipeg went on strike. On Saturday, 21 June, tensions reached the boiling point and violence broke out in the streets. This account by D.C. Masters is based on eyewitness reports of the events.

The crowd in front of the City Hall became more and more dense. There were soldiers in uniform and civilians in work-

ing clothes and holiday attire. Some had come to parade and others to see the excitement. People were moving up and down Main Street in large groups. Soldiers had begun to line up the silent parade in the square ...

Before long the Mounties, immaculate in red or khaki coats, clattered along Portage and wheeled down Main. Armed with baseball bats, they galloped into the crowd. Soon they were slowed to a walk in the seething mass of people, but still they pressed on, vigorously flailing out with their bats. They passed the City Hall, turned south and fought their way toward



Portage amid a shower of tin cans, stones, bricks, and lumps of concrete....

Amid wild confusion the mayor emerged on the front platform of the City Hall and read the Riot Act. His voice was drowned in bedlam. Again the Mounties came north and, as they did so, each transferred his club to the left hand and drew 'an ugly-looking black revolver.' They swung left on William Avenue and fired a volley into the crowd. They rounded the City Hall and slowed to a walk at the corner of Market and Main streets. Again they drove into the crowd which was surging around a streetcar, beleaguered and on

fire, in front of the City Hall. This the crowd was attempting to upset. The Mounties fired their second volley and Mike Sokolowiski, who stood in front of the Manitoba Hotel, was shot in the heart and killed instantly. Other figures lay on the street and road.

- 1. What do you think would cause a riot like Bloody Saturday in Winnipeg in 1919?
- 2. a) How do you think workers across the country will react to this strike? b) How might employers and government officials react? Explain.



World War I ended in November 1918. But the devastating effects of the war did not go away quickly. The social problems that workers, women, Aboriginal nations, immigrants, and the poor had faced before the war also resurfaced. The war had only pushed issues such as poverty, unsafe working conditions, and inadequate health care into the background for a time. The years immediately after World War I in Canada were a period of turmoil and unrest.

Prohibition

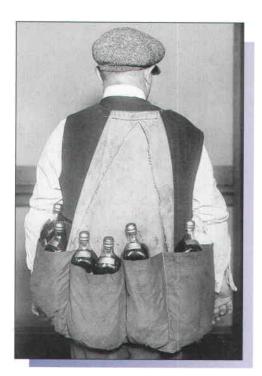
Some battles against social problems were won during the war. Women's groups, such as the Women's Christian Temperance Union, had campaigned for a ban on liquor since before the turn of the century. The women's groups were supported by farm, church, lodge, and merchant associations. During the war, their campaign gained momentum. It was pointed out that grain should be used to feed soldiers and civilians, rather than to make alcohol. Also, the production of liquor did nothing to support the war effort. Workers were needed to produce necessary war sup-

plies. During the war, every provincial government except Quebec banned the sale of liquor. In 1918, the federal government introduced **Prohibition**, banning the production, import, and transportation of liquor across the country.

But a complete ban on alcohol created a new kind of crime. People bought "bootleg booze"—illegal liquor made and sold by organized bootleggers and other small-time operators. Elegant private clubs called "speakeasies" sprang up. Customers were approved through a peephole in the front door. Inside the surroundings were fashionable and drinks were readily available. Some druggists did a roaring business by filling prescriptions of alcohol as a tonic.

The United States was also officially "dry" from 1919 to 1933. Some Canadians made fortunes smuggling Canadian liquor south of the border. Under the cover of dense woods, smugglers known as rumrunners used horse-drawn sleighs and snowshoes to get booze across the Quebec border into Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont. From ports along the shores of Lake Ontario and Lake Erie, fast boats ran cargoes of rum to the American shores. Estimates suggest that almost \$1 million of liquor also crossed from Windsor to Detroit each month.

During the Prohibition era, smugglers sometimes carried liquor bottles in hidden pockets under their coats as they crossed the border into the United States.



Prohibition had some positive social effects. The crime rate dropped, and arrests for drunkenness decreased dramatically. More workers took their pay cheques home instead of to the tavern. Industrial efficiency improved because fewer work days were missed. However, it became obvious during the 1920s that Prohibition was impossible to enforce. Underworld characters on both sides of the border were making fortunes in illegal liquor.

Provincial governments realized that they were losing millions of dollars in potential taxes on liquor sales. Prohibition was also unpopular with many citizens. Pressures increased for a more moderate liquor policy. People argued that legalizing liquor under strict government controls would be easier to enforce than total Prohibition. Gradually, individual provinces dropped Prohibition throughout the 1920s. Prince Edward Island was the last province to eliminate the law in 1948. Since then, Canadian governments have

generally chosen to tax bad habits rather than forbid them.

Influenza Epidemic

As soldiers returned home from the war, the country was struck with a terrible epidemic—"Spanish flu." Soldiers carried the virus with them from overseas. The epidemic ravaged countries around the world. People weakened from the virus often got pneumonia. In these days before the discovery of penicillin and sulpha drugs, thousands of people died from pneumonia.

To stop the spread of the flu, schools, threatres, and churches closed their doors. Some communities tried to set up a total quarantine, allowing no one to travel in or out. Public health departments and clinics across the country were flooded with the numbers of sick and dying. In all, about 50 000 Canadians died during the epidemic. This was only 10 000 fewer than the number of people killed during the war. Death had come to the home front.

The epidemic pressed the government into action. A federal Department of Health was created in 1919. Before this time, responsibility for public health had been divided among the three levels of government. Planning and action on health concerns were haphazard. The new federal Department of Health took control over national concerns such as border quarantines. It also co-operated with the provinces and volunteer organizations on campaigns such as child welfare. In addition, the federal and provincial governments began collecting vital statistics such as birth and death rates, and infant mortality rates. It took some years for the Department of Health to have a real impact, but it signalled that Canadians were becoming more aware of public health concerns.



🌣 👶 The Technological Edge

THE DISCOVERY OF INSULIN

In 1921, over a million people in North America had diabetes. At that time, no one knew what caused the disease or how to treat it. Thousands who suffered from the illness died every year.

In 1922, at the University of Toronto, Canadian medical researchers discovered a ground-breaking treatment - insulin. An Ontario doctor, Frederick Banting, was given the major credit for the discovery. After serving in the medical corps during World War I, Banting set up a small medical practice in London, Ontario. His practice was not a busy one and he spent some of his time thinking about the problem of diabetes. People with diabetes could not absorb sugar and starch from the bloodstream and they wasted away. They were missing an important hormone called insulin. Banting believed that if he could somehow isolate the hormone in animals, he could treat diabetes patients with injections of it.

On the night of 20 October 1920, Banting woke up with an idea. He thought of a way to get the hormone from dogs. Banting went to see Professor J.R.R. Macleod at the University of Toronto. Macleod agreed to give Banting a research laboratory and the help of a graduate student, Charles Best. In the summer of 1921, Banting and Best had managed to isolate insulin with the help of J.B. Collip. They were ready to test it on human patients. The results were astounding. By late 1922, insulin was made available to treat diabetes.

In 1923, Frederick Banting and J.R.R. Macleod were awarded the Nobel Prize for the discovery. Banting did not believe that Charles Best had been given due credit. He shared half his \$40 000 award with Best, and Macleod shared his with Collip. Today, there is still controversy over who deserves most credit for the discovery. There is no doubt, however, that the discovery of insulin has saved the lives of millions of people. It remains a major landmark in the history of medical research in Canada.



Frederick Banting (right) and Charles Best in 1923.

1. Do some research to find out about the contributions of other Canadian pioneers in the field of medicine. Some people you can consider include Dr. Elizabeth Bagshaw, Norman Bethune, Sir William Osler, Wilder Graves Penfield, and Tak Wah Mak.





Labour Unrest

The end of the war caused problems for workers as well. Wartime industries, such as military supply factories, geared down. Women, who had played such an important role in wartime factories, now found themselves under pressure to take up household duties once more so that returning soldiers could have jobs. Thousands of veterans were flooding the job market looking for work.

But jobs were hard to find. Many war veterans found their old jobs had disappeared. Some resented the fact that while they were in Europe fighting, a few industrialists at home had become enormously wealthy producing war materials. Veterans felt they were at least entitled to a job and a chance to make an honest living.

Those lucky enough to have jobs in 1919 were not much better off. One problem was inflation. During the war, prices of food and clothing had increased dramatically. Wages had also gone up, but they had not kept pace with rising prices. Between 1914 and 1919, the cost of living

RCMP and Vancouver police clear out the Post Office after a sit-down strike in 1938. Strikes by workers continued through the 1930s.



more than doubled. Housing was scarce and costly, and rents were high. Workers and returning soldiers had been told that the war was fought to create a better world. Now they expected to receive a larger share of economic benefits and more control over their own lives.

In 1919, workers had no unemployment insurance, compensation for injuries on the job, or pensions. Thousands had joined unions to fight for better working conditions. But the law was weighted against employees and their organizations. Labour law did not compel employers to bargain with employee representatives (a process we call collective bargaining today).

In many cases, there was only one way for workers to make their demands heard—strike. However, employers could easily get injunctions against strikers. Injunctions are orders from the court that forbid a strike and send workers back to their jobs. Employers also brought in strikebreakers (non-union labour) and crushed the strikers financially. The strikers were left without their jobs and their wages.

In 1918-1919, union membership climbed and a wave of labour unrest swept across Canada. Miners and steelworkers in Cape Breton, machinists in Toronto, loggers in West Coast lumber camps, and streetcar drivers in Windsor. Ontario, were just a few of the groups that walked off the job.

Strikes and Lockouts in Canada, 1917 - 1919

Year	Number of Strikes
1917	160
1918	230
1919	326

One Big Union (OBU)

In 1917, a small group of radicals in Russia called Bolsheviks overthrew the government in a violent revolution. The Bolsheviks called for a revolution by working people around the world. They believed that everyone in a community should own and control the way goods are produced and distributed. Some union leaders and working people in Canada were influenced by these ideas.

The Canadian government and employers reacted with alarm. They believed the revolution in Russia was an example of what could happen if worker unrest got out of hand. Some employers and government officials feared that workers in Canada were planning a revolution. They were particularly suspicious of "foreign" workers, who they believed brought dangerous ideas about political and social change into Canada.

When western Canadian trade unionists met in Calgary in 1919, the government made sure that police agents were there to monitor events. At that meeting in Calgary, labour leaders decided that to improve conditions, workers had to join together in one general union. These western union leaders were dissatisfied with the Trades and Labour Congress (TLC), which was mainly a large union for craft workers (carpenters, stonecutters, masons, shoemakers, etc.). Many unskilled and semi-skilled workers in Canada's growing industries were not represented in the TLC. The western unionists resolved to establish One Big Union (OBU), which united skilled and unskilled workers. They believed that by standing together, workers could force employers to pay higher wages and establish shorter working hours.

The Winnipeg General Strike

Worker unrest came to a head in Winnipeg in 1919. Winnipeg was a growing econom-

ic centre. A large number of immigrant workers had settled in the city, especially in a neighbourhood called "the North End." They wanted to improve working and living conditions. Such ideas for change drew suspicion from wealthier citizens, many of them British-Canadians. Some strongly opposed the demands of people they saw as "radical foreigners." Tensions were high in the city.

On 1 May, the Building and Metal Trades Councils in Winnipeg voted to go on strike. They were asking for three things:

- 1. decent wages (85 cents per hour)
- 2. an eight-hour day
- 3. the right to bargain collectively for better working conditions.

The Building and Metal Trades Councils asked for the support of other workers in Winnipeg. On 15 May, 30 000 additional workers in the city walked off the job. Workers in Vancouver, Toronto, and Montreal went on sympathy strikes to show their support.

In Winnipeg, the strike spread from industry to industry. It quickly escalated into a general strike, in which almost all industries and key services were shut down. Stores and factories closed. Dairies and bakeries stopped deliveries. Streetcar operators, garbage collectors, postal workers, telephone operators, firefighters, and hydro workers refused to work. Even the police expressed their support for the strike, but agreed to remain on duty when the strike leaders asked them to.

Winnipeg was split into two hostile camps. On one side were the strikers, their families, and their supporters. The strike was under the direction of the Central Strike Committee. In the interests of public health and safety, the Central Strike Committee allowed some bakers, dairy workers, and electric power operators to work.

On the other side were the owners, the employers, and leading citizens of Winnipeg. They called themselves the Citizens' Committee of One Thousand and were strongly opposed to the strike. Many were convinced that this was the beginning of the revolution they had been fearing.

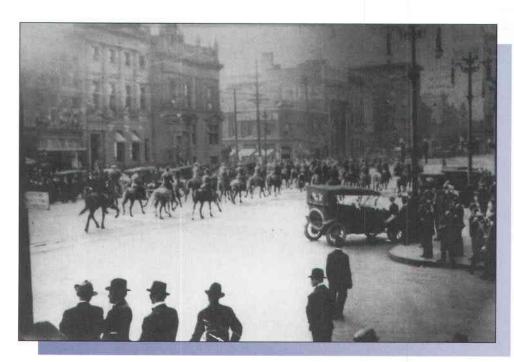
Winnipeg officials and the Citizens' Committee of One Thousand were determined to crush the strike. All parades and demonstrations were banned. Newspapers across the country were generally hostile toward the strikers. The Winnipeg Citizen accused the strikers of trying to bring about a revolution. The Canadian government became increasingly alarmed by events in Winnipeg and quickly made changes to the Criminal Code. Any foreign-born person who was suspected of trying to cause a revolution could be arrested and deported without a hearing or a trial. Meanwhile, Ottawa sent troops and machine guns to Winnipeg.

As the strike dragged on into June, the families of many strikers experienced real

hardship. There was no strike pay. Some became so discouraged that they gave up and drifted back to their jobs. Then on 17 June, in the early morning hours, Mounties raided the homes of the union leaders and labour headquarters. Documents were seized and 10 strike leaders were arrested.

The general strike dragged on for 37 days. On 21 June, a day that became known as Bloody Saturday, violence erupted. A huge crowd gathered to watch a parade protesting the arrest of the strike leaders. Parades had been banned. The Mayor, fearing trouble, read the Riot Act and called in the Royal North-West Mounted Police. Not long afterward, the crowd overturned a streetcar and set it on fire. The Mounted Police charged the crowd. Shots were fired. One man was killed and 30 were injured. Hundreds were arrested. The crowds dispersed in panic. Five days later, the Central Strike Committee ordered the workers back to their jobs. The general strike was over.

Workers and police clash on the streets of Winnipeg during the General Strike.



The Riot Act

His Majesty the King charges and commands all persons being assembled immediately to disperse and peaceably to depart to their habitation or their lawful business upon pain of being guilty of an offence for which upon conviction they may be sentenced to imprisonment for life.

Results of the Strike

To many workers, the Winnipeg General Strike looked like a complete failure. Their leaders were arrested and sentenced to jail terms. Many families, their savings gone, would never recover from their financial losses. When strikers went back to work, some were forced to sign "yellow-dog contracts." These contracts stated that they would not join a union or take part in union activities.

Others found they had no jobs to go back to. Employers branded them as troublemakers and fired them on the spot. With the collapse of the strike, the attempt to create One Big Union was doomed. The dream of a strong united Canadian labour movement was buried for the next 30 years. The bitterness between employees and employers, and between strikers and non-strikers, would last for a long time in Winnipeg.

In July 1919, the federal government changed the Criminal Code once again. Persons proposing violence to bring about political or economic changes could be searched without a warrant. Their property could be seized, and they could be sentenced to jail for up to 20 years. A person could be charged with being a member of an illegal organization for attending a strike meeting or handing out strike literature. This legislation was not changed until 1936.

But the Winnipeg General Strike had some positive effects. Thinking citizens began to appreciate how important workers were to the community. The superintendent of nurses in a Winnipeg hospital wrote, "The General Strike . . . made the people of Winnipeg realize that no modern community can function without the workers to carry on the humble and monotonous tasks which make a city safe and healthy to live in."

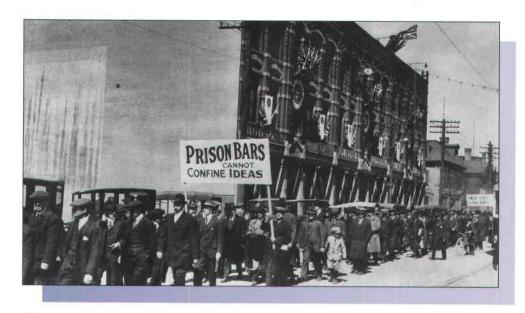
The strike drew attention to the social and economic problems faced by many working people. A Royal Commission was appointed to investigate the causes and the conduct of the strike. H. A. Robson, who headed the Royal Commission, concluded that the strike was caused by the high cost of living, poor working conditions, and the low wages paid to workers. Robson also determined that the Winnipeg strike was not an attempt to start a violent revolution.

Labour Leaders in Government

After the Winnipeg General Strike, labour leaders became more involved in politics. They decided that the way to solve unemployment and economic problems was to have a say in government. Many strike leaders went on to play important roles in government. In the Manitoba provincial election of 1920, four strike leaders (Ivens, Queen, Armstrong, and Dickson) were elected to the provincial government while still in prison. Other strike leaders served in city government as councillors or school trustees.

In the federal election of 1921, J. S. Woodsworth became MP for Winnipeg North Centre. He held this post until his death in 1941. Later, Woodsworth became the first leader of the Co-operative Commonwealth Federation (CCF), a proworker political party. Another strike leader, A. A. Heaps, was elected to Parliament in 1925. In years to come, both Woodsworth and Heaps were tireless champions of labour and social reform.

A demonstration protesting the arrest and trials of labour leaders during the Winnipeg General strike.



Politics and **Regional Protests**

In July 1920 Arthur Meighen, a Conservative, was sworn in as prime minister of Canada. He took over from Sir Robert Borden, who had resigned after the war. The Canada that Meighen inherited was restless and torn apart by strikes and regional interests.

French Canadians were still seething over the conscription crisis of 1917. After the election of 1917, Quebec also did not have a single MP on the government side. French Canadians felt increasingly alienated in Canada after the war. In the 1920s, a group called Action Nationale led by Abbé Lionel Groulx warned that French culture had to be protected in Quebec. Groulx wanted French-Canadian ownership of large industries such as hydroelectricity and opposed foreign investment in the province. The movement also supported French-Canadian rural life and traditional values.

The Maritime provinces also felt increasingly alienated in the country. Several Maritime manufacturing compa-

nies had moved out of the region to Central Canada, where they could have access to a larger market. Other Maritime industries also struggled with high freight rates on railways. Government policies favoured the growth of manufacturing companies in Central Canada, not in the East. Declining world demand for key Maritime products such as fish, coal, and farm goods also hit hard. Even the steel industry faced tough times as railway building basically stopped after the war. Unemployment soared. Many workers had to move to other parts of Canada to find work.

A Maritime Rights Movement wanted the federal government to increase subsidies (payments to the provinces), encourage more national and international trade through Maritime ports, and help protect Maritime industries with higher tariffs (taxes on imported goods). In 1926, a royal commission was set up to look into the problems. The commission recommended lower rail rates, aid to steel and coal industries, and higher federal subsidies. But the government made only minor changes. The fundamental economic problems in the region remained.

In the West, prairie farmers were also suffering from the post-war slump. In 1920, the world market for wheat collapsed. Wartorn Europe could not afford to buy Canadian wheat. Many prairie farmers were desperately short of cash and becoming increasingly frustrated. They claimed that high tariffs pushed up the prices of farm machinery, equipment, and consumer goods. High freight rates on the railways also increased their costs. Farmers had been protesting over these issues since before the turn of the century, but saw no real action from governments. Many farmers believed federal political parties were dominated by business interests in Central Canada.

In 1920, a number of farmers decided to form their own federal political party—the **National Progressives**. The party campaigned for lower freight rates and tariffs. It also believed voters should have a chance to propose laws and to recall MPs who were not representing their concerns. In the federal election of 1921, the Progressives stunned everyone and won 65 seats in the House of Commons. This was second only to the Liberals, who won the election.

But members of the National Progressives party often could not agree on major issues. Some eventually joined the Liberals, while others dropped out of politics. Farmers' parties, however, continued to stand for farmers' concerns in provincial elections. While the National Progressives did not last, they showed that the traditional twoparty system in Canada was not enough to represent the diverse concerns of groups across the country.

The federal election in 1921 was a tumultuous one. But the

man who became prime minister for most of the 1920s was destined to be the most successful political leader of his age. He was the grandson of William Lyon Mackenzie, the leader of the 1837 Rebellion in Upper Canada. For almost 30 years until his death in 1950, William Lyon Mackenzie King dominated the Liberal party and political life in Canada.

On the surface, King seemed to possess few qualities that would attract large numbers of voters. He was cautious and careful, and extremely shrewd. He had a strong interest in spiritualism and sometimes, through mediums and seances, tried to contact the dead. There were times when King believed he had been in contact with his dead mother and had received political advice from important figures of the past, including Laurier.

King's political genius lay in making Liberal policies acceptable to various groups and regions across the nation. He listened to what various regions of Canada wanted. Often, he put off reaching a decision until he worked out compromises among the diverse interests.

William Lyon
Mackenzie King
during the election
campaign. What does
this photo suggest
about how politicians
reached the voters
before the days of
television?



Veterans and Social Support

War veterans, who had fought for their country, believed they were entitled to a job, a decent wage, and some compensation for the injured. Over 70 000 veterans who returned from the war were injured or disabled. Through a government program, hospitals and clinics across the country provided free medical care for veterans. Many needed artificial limbs, or help for visual impairments, shell-shock, and the effects of gassing. A Canadian veteran, Captain E. A. Baker, returned from the war without his sight and worked to establish the Canadian National Institute for the Blind in 1918.

A vocational training program was set up, and thousands of veterans were given training to help them find new jobs. The Soldier Settlement Act in 1919 offered those who wanted to farm a grant of land. Pensions were paid to veterans, widows, and the wives and children of disabled veterans.

William Derby of Port Alberni, BC, was the first to receive a pension cheque in Canada following the Pension Act in 1927.



But in the early 1920s, even veterans who had received training could not find jobs. Those on farms found it difficult to keep up their mortgage payments. Others found their disabilities or injuries had worsened, making it difficult for them to work. The government responded by raising the cost-of-living bonus on pensions and providing unemployment assistance. In 1930, the War Veterans Allowance Act provided veterans who were unemployable and those who reached the age of 60 with a pension. These were some of the first social support programs in Canada.

Meanwhile, labour and farmers' groups were also pressuring the federal government to introduce social support programs such as unemployment insurance and "old-age" pensions for people beyond the veterans. The government was slow to act, despite widespread public support for the schemes. In 1926, J. S. Woodsworth and A. A. Heaps sent a letter to Prime Minister King:

Dear Mr. King:

As representatives of Labour in the House of Commons, we ask whether it is your intention to introduce at this session (a) provision for the Unemployed; (b) Old-Age Pensions.

Despite opposition from Conservatives in the Senate, the **Pension Act** was passed in 1927. Opponents of the scheme believed that if people knew the government would support them when they turned 70, they would make little effort to provide for themselves. By the Pension Act, British subjects over the age of 70 were entitled to a pension of \$240 a year. Pensioners had to have lived in Canada for at least 20 years. Anyone who earned more than \$365 in income a year could not receive a pension, and people who owned a home had to transfer it to the

Pension Authority. The Pension Authority sold the home and used the money to pay the person's pension. Women could receive a pension only if they were widows. Aboriginal peoples and people who were not British subjects were not eligible for the pension. A small step had been taken toward social support programs, but they did not apply equally to everyone in society.



Aboriginal Political Movements

Throughout the 1920s and 1930s, Aboriginal nations struggled to keep their cultures and to have their rights recognized. Since the Indian Act, which was passed in 1876, government policy had stressed assimilation. That is, the government wanted Aboriginal nations to give up their traditional ways and be absorbed into Canadian culture, which was predominantly "white" culture.

The Indian Act had made Aboriginal peoples "wards of the state." In other words, they were not considered independent, self-governing nations. They were placed under the guardianship of the Canadian government. A Department of Indian Affairs determined the rules by which they would live. Many Aboriginal nations had been moved onto reserves, lands set aside for them. They were given housing, fishing, and hunting rights on reserves and rights

to education. These rights were part of their status as "Indians" under the Indian Act, or part of their treaty rights. But the government considered this status as temporary. It expected Aboriginal peoples to eventually give up their status and become assimilated Canadian citizens.

Duncan Campbell Scott, Superintendent of Indian Affairs from 1913 to 1932, put the government's policy this way:

The happiest future for the Indian race is absorption into the general population, and this is the object of the policy of our government. The great forces of intermarriage and education will finally overcome the lingering traces of native custom and tradition.

One way the government aimed to assimilate children of Aboriginal nations was through residential schools. Residential schools were funded by the government, but run by various churches. The first schools were established in the mid-1800s. By 1931, there were 80 residential schools operating across the country. At first, attendance was voluntary. But in 1920, all children of Aboriginal nations between the ages of 7 and 15 were required to go to the schools. These children were taken from their families and sent to live in the schools. They were not allowed to speak their own languages or to follow their traditional cultural and spiritual practices. Rules were strict and

FAST FORWARD

In 1998, the Canadian government made a formal apology to Aboriginal peoples for the treatment they received in residential schools. A total of \$350 million was set aside to compensate the victims of the schools. But for many, it was too little too late. The schools had a devastating effect on Aboriginal cultures. Today Aboriginal communities are working to revive lost traditions, languages, and spiritual practices. They hope to heal the damage done during this difficult period in their history.

Thomas Moore attended a residential school in Regina. The photo on the left shows him as he entered the school. The photo on the right shows him after he had been in the school for a time.





- 1. Compare the photos. What changes do you notice in Thomas Moore's appearance, clothing, pose, and surroundings?
- 2. What effects do you think these changes would have on children of Aboriginal nations?
- 3. What do these photos show about the purpose of residential schools?

punishment was severe. Students were sometimes beaten for speaking their languages. Teachers were often poorly trained. Few children received a good education and many were ill-treated. The schools broke the connection between children, their parents, and their cultures. Many traditional Aboriginal ways were lost or forgotten. Residential schools were not phased out until the 1960s.

On reserves, Aboriginal peoples struggled with the loss of their traditional lifestyles. The government wanted Aboriginal peoples to become farmers. But land on reserves was often poor and agents sent to teach farming were not well trained. Aboriginal people who tried to live off reserves in Canadian towns and

cities faced discrimination and prejudice. They were given few opportunities to find good jobs and make a living. Many faced poverty and despair.

In the 1920s and 1930s, Aboriginal peoples began to form organizations to fight for their rights. In 1919 Frederick Loft, a Mohawk veteran from World War I, organized the **League of Indians**. The League was the first attempt at a united voice for Aboriginal nations. After the war, the government wanted to enfranchise Aboriginal veterans. By enfranchisement, the veterans would have the right to vote, but only if they gave up their Aboriginal status. Many Aboriginal veterans refused. To them, giving up their status meant giving up their identities. Loft believed that Aboriginal

people should have the right to vote without giving up their status.

Edward Ahenakew, a Cree, helped to extend the League into western Canada. During the 1920s and 1930s, the League worked for better health and education programs, more financial aid, control over reserve lands, and the right to hunt, fish, and trap without government interference.

In British Columbia, organizations such as the Allied Tribes pushed for recognition of Aboriginal land rights. The government had never signed treaties in British Columbia for Aboriginal lands. Aboriginal nations believed they had rights to land as the original inhabitants. The Allied Tribes took their case to the Privy Council in London, but they were blocked by officials at the Canadian High Commission. At a meeting in 1927, Duncan Campbell Scott rejected the Allied Tribes' land claim saying it would "smash" Confederation.

In response to this political activism, the government made it illegal for Aboriginal nations to raise funds for land claims. It also restricted their right to form political organizations. Bans on traditional ceremonies such as the potlatch were more strictly enforced. Some West Coast Aboriginal people were thrown into jail for taking part in a secret potlatch ceremony. In 1884, the Canadian government had banned the potlatch. By the 1920s the police were seizing masks and other sacred objects.

When the Six Nations attempted to gain international recognition as an independent nation equal to other nations in the world, the government blocked the actions. An RCMP detachment was stationed on the Six Nations reserve in 1923. In 1924, the police expelled the traditional council and seized sacred wampum belts. By 1930, these early political movements by Aboriginal nations had been



Mohawk Fred Loft, founder of the League of Indians in 1919.

stifled by the Canadian government, at least temporarily.



Immigration became another major issue in the 1920s. During World War I, immigration had slowed to a trickle. After the war, the federal government once again began to promote the Canadian West as a land of opportunity. But Canada was looking primarily for British immigrants. British youth and British ex-service men were actively recruited for the development of agriculture in Canada. Non-British, or "foreigners," were shut out.

Why? During the war many Canadians had become more suspicious and less tolerant of "foreigners" (non-British) and ethnic minorities.. An intense dislike of foreigners is known as **xenophobia**. Changes to the Immigration Act in 1919 reflected feelings of xenophobia. It became compulsory for immigrants to pass an English literacy test. Canada was looking only for immigrants who could be easily assimilated into society. A large part

of the population and the Canadian government, whether it was Liberal or Conservative, did not want more non-British people in the country.

James Gray describes feelings in Winnipeg at this time:

None of the city's chartered banks, trust companies, or insurance companies would knowingly hire a Jew, and anyone with a Ukrainian or Polish name had almost no chance of employment except rough manual labour. The oil companies, mortgage companies, financial and stockbrokers, and most retail and mercantile companies except the Hudson's Bay Company discriminated against all non-Anglo Saxons ... There was a possible solution if they could beat the accent handicap. They could change their names Caoline Czarnecki overnight became Connie Kingston, Mike Drazenovick became Martin Drake, and Steve Dziatkewich became Edward Dawson.

Feelings of resentment against people from former enemy countries and pacifists also remained. In 1919 the government passed an Order-in-Council barring all Mennonites, Doukhobors, and Hutterites from coming to Canada. Just the year before in 1918, a number of Hutterites had moved into Manitoba and Alberta from the United States. The government had granted them exemption from military service, permission to settle communally, and the right to independent private schools. These were the same rights the Mennonites and Doukhobors had been granted when they came to Canada. But hostile public opinion pushed the government to overturn its policy. People complained about the special privileges given to the Hutterites. Many returned to the United States. Mennonites were not

allowed into Canada again until 1922, and Doukhobors not until 1926.

In British Columbia, the discrimination was mostly directed against Asians. Immigrants from China, Japan, and India had over the years settled in British Columbia. They worked building railroads, mining, fishing, in sawmills, and in businesses. But all these groups faced racial discrimination. They were often paid lower wages than other workers for the same job, were excluded from most professions, and did not have the right to vote even if they were born in Canada. Many could find jobs only within their own communities.

On 1 July 1923, Canada passed the **Chinese Exclusion Act**. This Act banned all Chinese except students, merchants, and diplomats from entering Canada. From 1923 until the Act was repealed in 1947, only eight Chinese people were admitted to Canada. To Chinese Canadians, 1 July 1923 is known as "Humiliation Day."

Other policy changes followed. In 1927 officials in prairie cities complained to the federal government that many European immigrants were not staying on farms as intended. Instead, they were flocking into the cities and towns looking for jobs. This was adding to growing unemployment problems in cities. Under pressure, the federal government agreed to restrict European immigrants. In 1928, the government also limited to 150 the number of Japanese allowed to enter the country. That same year, the provincial Liberal government in British Columbia petitioned Ottawa to end all Asian immigration and to patriate, or send home, as many Chinese or Japanese people as possible. Applications were still accepted from British citizens who wanted to immigrate to Canada, however.

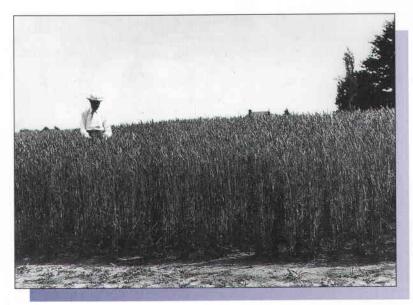
© Economy on the Upswing

By the mid-1920s, the economy started to turn around in Canada. The after-effects of the war were wearing off. Business picked up as foreign investors gained new confidence in Canada. By the middle of the decade, the economy was on the upswing. Industries were growing again. The Maritime provinces benefited least, however. Growth in oil and hydroelectric industries only sent the region's coal production into further decline.

Wheat on the Prairies

The Prairie Provinces enjoyed huge wheat crops from 1925 to 1928. Europe was hungry again for Canadian wheat as economies began to recover, and the world price of wheat moved steadily upward. Farmers began to buy trucks and mechanical harvesters. They replaced their horses with tractors. Marquis wheat was now being grown successfully across the Prairies, including in more northerly regions.

Some farmers organized wheat pools and co-operatives. These co-operatives were businesses owned by farmers. Their goal was to loan money to other farmers at lower interest rates than eastern Canadian bankers charged. Farmers also hoped that the co-operatives would be able to find customers for their grain, cattle, and dairy products. In this way, they could skip the dealers by marketing their own products and receiving a greater share of the profits. By 1928, Canada had a record wheat crop and a major share of the world market. Grain elevators were filled to the top, and prices of wheat remained at an all-time high through the first half of 1929.



Pulp and Paper

In the 1920s, the production of newsprint became Canada's largest industry after agriculture. From Nova Scotia to British Columbia, vast forests of softwoods such as spruce, pine, and poplar were used to make newsprint. Most of the American sources of pulpwood had been used up. Giant American newspapers provided a ready market for Canadian pulpwood. By 1929, exports of Canadian pulpwood equalled total pulp exports from the rest of the world. So much newsprint was shipped across the border that the Canadian government finally had to urge Canadian producers to save some of the supply for our own newspapers.

The boom did have a down side. Canada's forests were being destroyed. Canada's economy was also becoming more and more dependent on the export of raw materials. Thousands of Canadian workers were following the materials to the United States and finding jobs in American industries.

Marquis wheat was being grown across the Prairies by the 1920s. Farmers enjoyed bumper crops from 1925 to 1928.

Hydroelectric Power

Quebec and Ontario saw a dramatic increase in the production of hydroelectric power in the 1920s. Niagara Falls had been used for power since 1895. Rivers such as the Saguenay and the St. Maurice were developed as resources for water power in the 1920s. More industries were using hydroelectric power instead of coal. People were demanding electricity for their homes, especially as new electrical appliances became available. Canada's output of hydroelectric power became the second largest in the world.

Oil and Gas

People called the 1920s the "Oil Age!" As more Canadians took to the road in automobiles, the demand for gasoline and oils soared. Oil and gas were also being used for

heating and cooking. An all-out search for new sources of thin "black gold" was on.

In October 1924, oil speculators in Alberta struck it rich. The well they were drilling in the Turner Valley south of Calgary exploded into flames and burned out of control for several weeks. Eventually, the fire was brought under control and the well became a great moneymaker. It produced a million barrels of oil and large quantities of natural gas. The confidence and optimism of the Alberta oil speculators grew. They continued to pour investment dollars into exploration and development of oil resources.

Mining

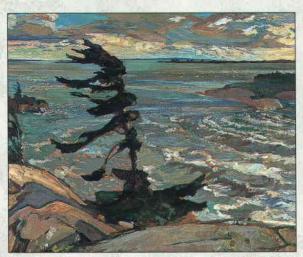
Exciting new mining discoveries were made in the 1920s. Large deposits of copper were found in the Canadian Shield near Noranda along the Ontario-Quebec

A natural gas flare lights up an oil derrick in the Turner Valley of Alberta. The oil strike marked the beginning of a major oil and gas boom in the province.



O @ ArtsTalk





Stormy Weather, Georgian Bay by Frederick Varley.



A Haida Village by Emily Carr.

The Group of Seven

At the turn of the century, art and especially painting was changing considerably. Some of the old rules were breaking down. Artists around the world were experimenting with new techniques and ways of expressing themselves. Impressionists, for example, wanted to express their feelings for their subjects through their art. They were less concerned about representing their subjects to look exactly as they were. Canadian artists, particularly members of the **Group of Seven**, were influenced by the Impressionists.

Members of the Group of Seven were also determined to create art that dealt with the Canadian experience. They took their inspiration from the Canadian landscape. The first exhibition of paintings by the Group was held in May 1920 at the Art Gallery of Ontario. The pictures portrayed Canada as a land of spectacular open spaces, rivers, lakes, and forests.

Lawren Harris was one member of the Group. In 1912, Harris saw an exhibition of paintings by J. E. H. MacDonald that changed his life. Not only was he impressed with the work, but through MacDonald he was introduced to other Toronto-based artists. Franklin Carmichael, Frank Johnston, Arthur Lismer, and Fred Varley became members of the Group. In 1913, MacDonald wrote to a Montreal friend, A. Y. Jackson, whose work they admired. Jackson soon moved to Toronto to join the other six. A. J. Casson joined the Group of Seven in 1926. By that time, Frank Johnston had left the Group.

Some of the most inspiring pictures were produced on sketching trips in northern Ontario, but members of the Group also illustrated other parts of Canada including areas of Quebec, Nova Scotia, and the Rocky Mountains. The painters used bright, strong colours to portray the forces of nature. Often the paint was applied thickly with vivid brush strokes.

They captured the vitality and ruggedness of the landscape by using simple, bold shapes.

Later, West Coast artist Emily Carr also exhibited with the Group. Many of her paintings took their inspiration from the life and culture of Aboriginal nations on the West Coast.

The Group of Seven were the first to create a Canadian national style in painting. Their influence and popularity spread steadily during their lifetimes. Today, Canadian art collectors eagerly seek out and pay high prices for works by the Group of Seven.

- 1. Stage an art exhibition. Find and display reproductions of paintings by the Group of Seven.
- How do you think the Group of Seven's paintings created a national style or identity for Canadian art in the 1920s? To answer this question, describe the subjects of the paintings and the moods they create.
- 3. Make a list of the subjects that you would paint to depict Canada today.
- 4. Imagine a Group of Seven painting is the opening scene in a movie. Write a paragraph to describe what happens next.
- 5. Do some further research on one of the members of the Group of Seven. Create a small portfolio of the artist's work, including a short biography and summary of his or her accomplishments on the first page of the portfolio.

border and at Flin Flon in northern Manitoba. At Sudbury, Ontario, by 1929, Canada was producing almost 80 per cent of the world's supply of nickel. Kimberley, in British Columbia, produced lead and zinc in one of the world's largest mines. Many of these rich mining deposits were developed with American financing.

S Foreign Investment

At the beginning of the twentieth century, the biggest foreign investors in Canada were the British. Bankers from Britain had invested in Canadian government bonds and railroads. They invested less in industrial enterprises because of the greater uncertainty of making a profit.

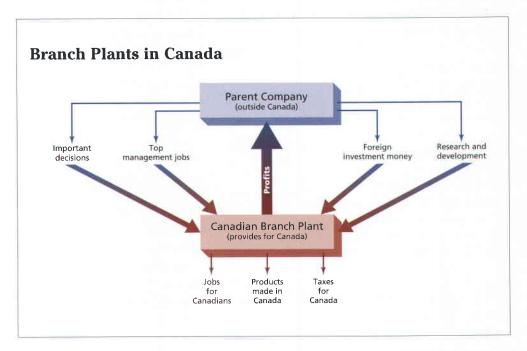
With the outbreak of World War I, British investment in Canada slowed down. But as British investment fell off, American investment increased. Americans preferred to put money into the rapidly expanding areas of the Canadian economy. These included mining, pulp and paper, and hydroelectric power.

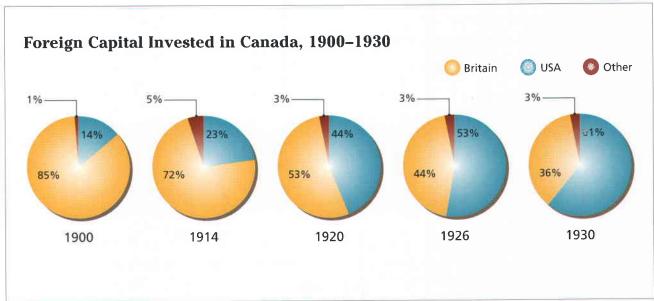
There was another difference between American and British investors. American investors took greater control over the industries. British investors usually left Canadian business people to run the businesses in their own way. Americans introduced the **branch plant** system. These branch industries were copies of the American parent company. They produced the same product as the parent company in the United States, but the products could be marked "Made in Canada." In this way, the parent company avoided paying high tariffs on imports at the border.

Canadian opinions about American investment differed widely. Some people believed the foreign capital was essential to develop industries and provide jobs in Canada. They felt American capital could develop Canada into an economic power.

Other Canadians were deeply concerned about the increasing Americanization of the Canadian economy. They argued that many important decisions concerning Canadian branches were made in the United States. Top management jobs fre-

quently were held by Americans. Profits earned by the Canadian branch plants were often sent back to the United States. Some people feared a complete economic takeover of Canada by the United States. Some Canadians felt the government should be seriously looking for ways to curb American control of the economy.







Developing Skills: Decision-Making

You have probably come up against some tough decisions in your life and have more ahead of you. Can you join a club or sports team and still keep up your grades? What do you do if you can't find a summer job? What occupation or career do you want to pursue? Often, these decisions can be easier to work through if you follow a careful reasoning process.

Let's take an example. Suppose you have a friend who you know has been shoplifting. You want to help her.

Step 1

First, state the problem as a question. Remember it should begin with something like, "In what ways might ...?", or "How might ...", or "How should ...?" Try out a few problem statements and choose the one that is most relevant and meaningful.

Sample question: "How should we help our friend with her shoplifting problem?"

Step 2

Brainstorm alternative solutions to the problem. Try to generate as many ideas as you can.

Alternatives:

- Tell a teacher whom you trust and ask for advice
- Persuade your friend to see a counsellor
- Tell your friend's parents
- Talk with your friend about her problem
- Go with your friend to her parents or a counsellor
- Don't do anything

Step 3

You have no doubt produced more alternative solutions than you can deal with. You need some basis for making your decision, some way of working out what is important to you in this situation. In other words, you need criteria to judge by. List criteria that you think are important in evaluating your alternative solutions.

Criteria:

- The friendship is maintained
- Your friend gets help
- As few people as possible know about the problem

	Alternatives				
Criteria	1	2	3	4	5
	Get advice from a teacher	Talk with your friend	Tell her parents	Persuade her to see a counsellor	Go with her to a counsellor
Friendship is maintained	4	1	5	3	2
Friend gets help					
Friend feels supported					
Friend stays out of trouble					
As few people as possible know					

- · Your friend stays out of trouble
- Your friend is not suspended from school
- Your friend feels supported
- The solution does not cost too much
- The solution is practical
- · Your friend maintains her dignity

Step 4

Choose five of your most promising solutions and your five most important criteria. Now you need to evaluate your alternative solutions according to your criteria. Write your criteria and your alternatives in a matrix like the one on the previous page.

Step 5

Rank each of your alternatives from 1 through 5 on the first criterion. Score 5 for the best and 1 for the poorest solution. Next, rank each alternative on the second criterion in the same way. Continue until you have ranked all your alternative ideas according to your criteria. Make sure all the

numbers from 1 to 5 are used in each column. Now total the numbers for each alternative. Which alternative scores highest?

Step 6

State your decision and make a plan for how you would carry it out.

Step 7

Evaluate your decision. If your plan was carried out, what would be the desired results.

Apply It!

Now you can use this model to help you decide what you would do about the Americanization of the Canadian economy. In groups, follow the steps in the decision-making process. Come to a group decision on this issue and present it to the class. Discuss the usefulness of the decision-making model.

Canada's Growing Autonomy

During the 1920s, Canada took some major steps toward full autonomy (complete control over its own affairs). Canada's path to autonomy was different from the one the United States had taken. In 1776, the United States gained its independence from Britain after a bloody revolution. Canada gained autonomy in a series of peaceful steps during and after World War I.

World War I had been a turning point. The country's major contribution in war supplies and soldiers, as well as its role in Allied victories, had given Canadians a new sense of national maturity. After the war, Canada had gained the right to sign the Treaty of Versailles on its own. Canada also joined the League of Nations as a separate nation from Britain, despite protests

from the United States that British colonies would win extra votes for Britain. But Canada was still a Dominion within the British Empire. Britain still had the final say in Canada's foreign affairs. When Mackenzie King became prime minister in 1921, he was determined to push for Canadian autonomy. A number of events over the next 10 years provided him with the opportunities he needed.

1922 The Chanak Affair

Britain became embroiled in a dispute with Turkey at Chanak. Chanak was a small town on the strait that links the Aegean and Black seas. Turkey, which had been on the losing side in World War I, threatened to take control of the area. Britain sent in troops and ships, and asked Canada for military support if war developed.

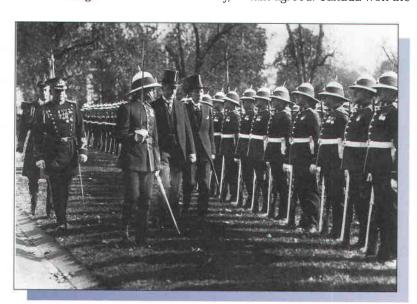
King was convinced that most Canadians did not want to get involved in another faraway European war.

Canadians, like the Americans in the 1920s and 1930s, were becoming more isolationist. They did not wish to become entangled in foreign conflicts. When Britain asked for military help at Chanak. King replied that only the Canadian Parliament could decide whether or not to send troops. This was a change from the situation in 1914 when World War I broke out. In 1914 when Britain declared war. Canada stood beside Britain without question and automatically joined the war. This time King made it clear that Canada would make its own foreign policy. Canada would not be dragged along on Britain's coattails. Britain's interests and Canada's interests in foreign policy were not always the same.

1923 The Halibut Treaty

Canada and the United States worked out an agreement on the fishing season for halibut in the north Pacific. The matter was of no direct concern to Britain. In the past, Britain always signed treaties on Canada's behalf. This time, King insisted that only representatives from Canada and the United States should sign the treaty. Eventually, Britain agreed. Canada won the

Canada's first foreign diplomat, Vincent Massey, at a dedication of a war monument in Washington with American president Coolidge in 1927.



right to sign treaties with a foreign country on its own.

1926 The King-Byng Crisis

In 1926, Governor General Julian Byng refused to dissolve Parliament and call an election when King requested it. King accused Byng of ignoring the advice of the elected government. The Prime Minister argued that this was a breach of the principle of responsible government. At the next Imperial Conference, King was determined to clarify the role of the governor general.

1926 The Balfour Report

At the next Imperial Conference, King insisted that the delegates talk about the powers of the Dominions and the nature of their relationship to each other and to Britain. King was determined that Canadians should make their own decisions about foreign policy without British interference. At the conference, a new relationship was hammered out and summarized in the Balfour Report. Canada and the other Dominions were declared self-governing and independent nations. They would no longer be called "Dominions of the British Empire." However, they agreed to remain part of a new Commonwealth of Nations. Commonwealth nations were equal in status and united by their common allegiance to the British monarch. The Commonwealth would be a voluntary family of nations from around the world.

On the issue of the governor general's powers, Canada also won concessions. The governor general would be the representative of the Crown in Canada, not the agent of the British government. King demanded that, as a sovereign nation, the Canadian government should communicate directly with the British government. Canada would no longer talk to Britain through the governor general.

1927/28 New Foreign Embassies

In 1927, Canada opened its own embassy in the United States. Vincent Massey became Canada's first foreign diplomat. The following year, Canadian embassies were opened in France and Belgium.

1931 The Statute of Westminster

On 11 December 1931, the British Parliament passed the Statute of Westminster. The Statute made the recommendations of the Balfour Report law. Canada was made completely self-governing, bound by no laws other than its own. Britain could no longer make any laws for Canada.

In two areas Canada did not claim full independence. There was still one court higher than the Supreme Court of Canada —the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council in Britain. Also, because the provinces and the federal government could not agree on a method for amending the British North America Act, that power remained the responsibility of the British government. However, it was understood that this power would end when Canadians agreed on the powers to be held by the provincial and federal governments. Except for these two details, Canada had achieved complete autonomy by 1931.



Activities

Understand Facts and Concepts

1. Add these new terms to your Factfile.

Prohibition

One Big Union

Winnipeg General Strike

Bloody Saturday

National Progressives party

Pension Act 1927

League of Indians

xenophobia

Chinese Exclusion Act 1923

Group of Seven

branch plants

isolationist

Commonwealth of Nations

Statute of Westminster

- 2. a) Why was Prohibition introduced in Canada?
 - b) What were its effects?
 - c) Why was total Prohibition abandoned?
- 3. Choose one of the following. Outline the problems this group faced in the early 1920s. Then state three ways the group tried to deal with these problems. Share your answers.
 - a) returning soldiers
 - b) workers
 - c) western farmers
 - d) people in the Maritime provinces
 - e) Aboriginal nations
- 4. Which immigrants did Canada encourage in the 1920s? Name one group that was shut out and explain why.
- 5. a) Give reasons why Americans invested in Canada in the 1920s.
 - b) Correctly use the following terms in a sentence: branch plant, tariff barrier, parent company.

- 6. a) How did the Statute of Westminster grant Canada fuller autonomy?
 - b) What ties did Canada still have with Britain?

Think and Communicate

- 7. Create a map entitled "The Economic Development of Canada in the 1920s." Devise symbols to represent the major industries that developed in the 1920s and place them in the appropriate regions on the map. Include short notes explaining how and why the industries developed in these regions.
- 8. On cue cards, write one or two sentences describing the importance of the following people in the 1920s. Using the cards, challenge a partner to correctly identify the people.

Frederick Banting Emily Carr
Frederick Loft Vincent Massey
J. S. Woodsworth W. L. Mackenzie King

Lawren Harris Julian Byng

Arthur Meighen J. E. H. MacDonald

- 9. When the Winnipeg General Strike ended, both sides described the events in different ways. Work with a partner. One of you writes a news report describing the reasons and events of the strike from a striker's point of view. The other writes the report from the point of view of a member of the Citizens' Committee of One Thousand. Compare your reports. What are the differences? Explain.
- 10. Working with a partner, role play a dialogue between a supporter and an opponent of Canada's immigration policy in the 1920s. Prepare by outlining arguments you will use. Take a class survey to determine who had the stronger arguments. Discuss why.
- 11. There were several other famous strikes in Canada during the first half of the twentieth century: the Stratford Strike of 1933 in Ontario; the Oshawa Strike of 1937; the Asbestos Workers' Strike of 1949 in Quebec; the Ford-Windsor Strike of 1945 in Ontario; the Cape Breton Miners Strikes in the 1920s, to name just a few. Investigate one of these strikes. Answer the following questions in your report.
 - a) Why were the workers striking?
 - b) What were the major events of the strike?
 - c) What position did the management or factory owners take?
 - d) What was the attitude of the press and the public toward the strike?
 - e) What was the outcome of the strike?
 - f) What advances were made by the strike?
- 12. The historian A. M. Lower reviewed Canada's advance toward autonomy during the 1920s and 1930s. He wrote: "There is good ground for holding December 11, 1931, as Canada's Independence Day, for on that day she became a sovereign state." (Lower, Colony to Nation, p. 485). Explain why Professor Lower thought that the Statute of Westminster was so important for Canada.

Apply Your Knowledge

- 13. Research some important traditions of particular Aboriginal nations, such as the potlatch of West Coast peoples or the Sun Dance of the Siksika (Blackfoot) nation. Find out how these traditions are celebrated today. What effects would the banning of these traditions have had on the people in the 1920s? Think of an important tradition or celebration in your culture and imagine it were banned to help you understand the effects.
- 14. George Meany was one of the most powerful leaders in North America's labour movement. He once said that "strikes no longer make any sense and we should eliminate them." Debate Meany's statement.

Get to the Source

15. Students in the Kamloops Indian Residential School in British Columbia described their experiences.

Before I left [home], I was full of confidence; I could do everything that was needed to be done at home But when I arrived here all that left me. I felt so helpless. The Shuswap language was no use to me ... the supervisors couldn't understand.

I was punished quite a bit because I spoke my language ... I was put in a corner and punished and sometimes, I was just given bread and water

Source: Celia Haig-Brown, Resistance and Renewal: Surviving the Indian Residential School (Vancouver: Tillacum Library, 1988).

- a) How did this student in the residential school feel? Why?
- b) What effects do these quotations suggest the residential schools had on the children?



The Roaring Twenties

Historic Broadcast

In 1923, one of the most famous sportscasters in Canadian history called his first hockey game. His name was Foster Hewitt. Years later, the story of that first broadcast became famous.

I'd like you to go to the Mutual Street Arena tonight and broadcast the hockey game between Parkdale and Kitchener Seniors.

A what? A hockey game? Did I hear you right? Why wouldn't someone in the sports department do that job?

They haven't anyone with radio experience. No, you're our man, Foster. It could be that thirty, forty years from now you may be proud to say,'I was the first person in all the world ever to broadcast a hockey game.'

That's quite a prophesy, Basil; but what if it's a flop?



No one had ever done play-by-play of hockey games over the radio before. For that first game, Foster sat in a glass booth at rink level to keep out the noise of the crowd. At times, he could barely see because the glass fogged up. He described the game over a telephone connected to the radio station. In 1931, he broadcast his first

"Hockey Night in Canada" game. This time he was perched high in the gondola over the rink in Maple Leaf Gardens. For almost 30 years, Foster Hewitt was hockey for thousands of Canadians who tuned in to his radio broadcasts. They listened to his excited call: "He shoots! He scores!" In the 1920s, NHL hockey and Foster Hewitt became part of Canadian history.

- 1. In the 1920s, the radio became a feature in many Canadian homes. Using a web diagram, brainstorm the effects you think radio broadcasting had on the lives of Canadians in the 1920s.
- 2. Examine the results. How do they compare with the way the Internet affects your life today?

In the 1920s, it must have seemed that the world was suddenly smaller for many people. New inventions such as the radio, mass-produced automobiles, and air travel meant that people in the remotest areas of the country were no longer as isolated. They could share in common forms of entertainment, travel to other regions, and tune in to the latest news broadcasts. While not everyone could afford the new fads and inventions, they moved to within the reach of more than just the wealthy. Many Canadians took them up with great enthusiasm. After the horrors of the war, people were ready to add some joy to their lives.

Radio

Radio was the great communication invention of the 1920s. Voices, news, and music could now be broadcast across the country using radio signals. It was the invention of the radio that helped shrink Canada's vast size. People living in isolated rural parts of the country were brought in touch with the cities of the nation. It became possible for a farmer living far from the city to twist the dials on a battery-powered radio set and listen to a hockey game from Montreal. Radio provided inexpensive entertainment in people's homes.

The earliest home sets had no tubes, but used a crystal (a thin piece of quartz).

Listeners tuned in a signal by moving a fine wire "whisker" over the surface of the crystal. Sounds from crystal radios were never very loud, so earphones were often needed. Several pairs of earphones were provided when neighbours came to visit and "listen in." A person could take a crystal set on a picnic, hang the antenna on a tree, and sit back and listen through the headphones. One Canadian, R. H. Hahn, recalls:

Around 1930, when I was seven or eight, I remember people sitting around with crystal sets at our homestead in northern Saskatchewan listening to the World Series. Only one person at a time could hear the thing. They'd share this little ear plug. I was never important enough to get a turn. There'd be a group of maybe 20 grown men at these gatherings, each taking a brief moment to hear what was going on, and then reporting it to everyone else.

Before long, improved and expensive radio sets appeared in the stores. These were built in elaborate wooden cabinets. Tubes replaced the crystal and whisker, and speakers replaced earphones. The radios operated by large batteries that had to be recharged frequently. In 1925, a brilliant young Canadian inventor, Edward "Ted" S. Rogers, discovered a way of plugging the radio directly into household elec-

In the 1920s, people anxiously tuned in to their radios for the latest news, sports, and entertainment programs. By 1929, one in five Canadian families owned a radio.



trical current. His invention was the world's first battery-less radio. It sold for approximately \$150.

In 1919, Guglielmo Marconi, the inventor of the first wireless radio, had set up the first commercial radio station in Montreal. In February 1927, Ted Rogers set up his own radio station in Toronto. His station's call letters CFRB continue today to stand for his invention (R for Rogers and B for Battery-less). By 1929, there were 85 small broadcasting stations in Canada. People could tune in to hear the latest news, weather, music, drama programs, sports broadcasts, comedies, and entertainment shows. The vast majority of programs, however, came from the United States.

Automobiles

The 1920s also saw the growth of the automobile industry. Henry Ford dreamed of making an inexpensive car that almost anyone could afford to buy. Ford decided to apply to car manufacturing a method of **mass production** that was being used in some other industries.

Ford set up an **assembly line** that ran from one end of a building to another. At one end of the line were the frames of the cars. At first, the line did not move. The workers walked along it adding parts to the automobiles. Later, Ford had the line itself move like a conveyor belt. As the line moved, new parts were added to the frame by workers who remained in one place. By the time a car reached the end of the line, it had been assembled and was ready to be driven.

Each worker on the assembly line had a separate job. Some added parts, while others secured the parts in place. This was called the division of labour. Ford also used standard parts for his cars, which meant that wheels, engines, and bodies were exactly alike for each car. As a result, Ford was able to produce the famous, practical "Model T" at a price that average North Americans could afford. The "Tin Lizzy," as the Model T was affectionately called, had a simple box-like design. But in 1924, it could be purchased for around \$395.

The automobile has probably done more than any other machine to change our way of living. It put North Americans on wheels. On Sunday, a family with a car could call on relatives 15 or 20 km away and still be home in time for supper. Farm families could travel to nearby towns and cities for a day's shopping and buy goods they could only get by mail-order catalogue before. It was also easier for farm children to get to schools and for the sick to get to hospitals. The car made farm life less isolated and lonely.

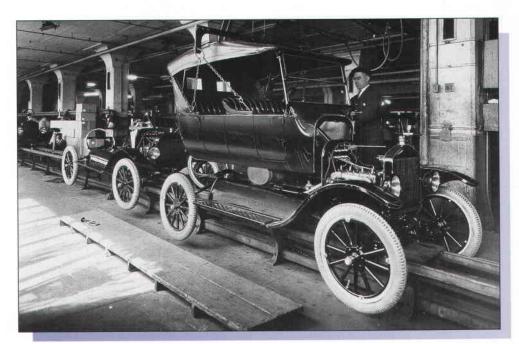
For many people, cars also became status symbols. Movie idols in the 1920s all drove cars and reinforced the image that cars represented freedom and glamour. Cars also gave people a new sense of individualism. They were much more private than riding on a train, streetcar, or bus.

But the early models were often an adventure to drive for most people. A crank and a tow rope were standard equipment in every automobile. The crank was needed to get the engine started. A tow rope was required because motorists never knew when they might get stuck in mud or snow. More than one pleasant Sunday drive was spoiled when the family car became mired in mud. Most motorists did not attempt to drive in the winter at all. They put their car up on blocks because the engines tended to seize up with the cold.

By 1929, only the United States had more cars per person than Canada. Automobile manufacturing became a cornerstone of Canadian industry. At first, many small companies made, assembled, or sold cars in Canada. But by the 1920s, these small companies could not compete with larger American firms that were mass-producing less expensive models. In 1918, Samuel McLaughlin, who had started producing cars in Canada in 1908, sold his company to General Motors. In 1925, Wal-

ter P. Chrysler bought out the struggling Maxwell-Chalmers Company in Windsor, Ontario, and established the Chrysler Company of Canada. The American giant, Ford, had been manufacturing cars in Canada since 1904. Known as the "Big Three, these companies controlled car manufacturing in North America. By the end of the decade, Canada had become the second largest producer of automobiles in the world after the United States. Canadian-built cars were exported to the United States and around the world to countries in the British Empire.

The automobile had other effects on the economy. Spin-off industries sprang up across the country: gasoline, rubber, glass, oil, asphalt, and paint to name a few. Jobs were created in service stations, roadside restaurants, parking lots, repair shops, and road construction. Governments spent increasing amounts of money on roads, highways, and bridges. Main roads were paved and some country roads were given a surface of gravel. The tourist industry also benefited. The family car made it pos-



The age of the automobile had arrived. Model T Fords roll along the assembly line.

Motor Vehicle Registration in Canada			
1903	220		
1911	22 000		
1921	465 000		
1931	1 201 000		

Source: Dominion Bureau of Statistics.

sible to have a summer cottage and to travel longer distances for summer vacations. Along the major roads, tourist cabins and motels developed to house the increasing number of travellers. Trucks and tractors were also being produced at an increasing rate. Trucks were used for hauling freight from factories and food from farms. Tractors made heavy work on farms easier and more efficient.

The automobile created some problems, however. No one knew that this great invention would pollute the air, cause incredible traffic jams, and bring death to thousands of people each year. Criminals also made use of the automobile. Vancouver police reported at least six robberies a night in which the thieves made their getaway in a car. Police departments were soon forced to buy automobiles themselves. Governments found they needed to set speed limits on roads and introduce other traffic regulations. Most provinces required drivers to obtain licences.

Aviation

Stunt flyers and air travel were also part of the 1920s. Canadian pilots who returned from World War I were anxious to continue flying. Some bought war surplus biplanes and "barnstormed" across the country. They performed daring stunts over country fairs. As onlookers below gasped in horror, the pilots would dive and loop-the-loop, and even hang from the wings of their flimsy craft. For "two bucks"

a flip," they would take the adventuresome for an airplane ride.

Other flyers got jobs as **bush pilots**. Oil and mining companies needed a way to get people and supplies to remote areas. Bush pilots helped to open northern frontiers of Canada by flying prospectors, geologists, and supplies into mineraland oil-rich areas. Soon planes were also used to spot forest fires, and to take aerial photographs and geological surveys.

In 1924, the **Royal Canadian Air Force (RCAF)** was created. The government believed military planes could be justified only if they were used for peaceful purposes as well. Early RCAF pilots therefore also conducted surveys, patrolled for forest fires, watched for smuggling along Canada's coasts, and checked on fishing boats. In 1927, the post office hired pilots to fly mail into remote communities within Canada.

Wilfred "Wop" May, the famous Canadian war ace, started his own airline in Edmonton after the war. He flew stunts at fairs and made some of the first flights hauling mail into the Arctic. In 1929, news of a diptheria outbreak in the Peace River area of northern Alberta reached May. It was clear that many people would die unless medicine could be flown into the communities.

In the height of winter, May and a copilot took off in the freezing temperatures. Their small plane had no heat except for a small charcoal burner at their feet. On the way, the plane's wings iced up, and the pair had to land in a tiny community called McLennan. People who got word they were coming tramped out a landing strip in the snow since there was no airport. May landed safely, de-iced the plane, and then took off again to complete the journey. The medicine was delivered to the Peace River communities. May and his co-pilot had made one of the first mercy flights, and



SPOTLIGHT ON ...

Joseph-Armand Bombardier

Joseph-Armand Bombardier was the son of a prosperous farmer in Valcourt, Quebec. In 1922, when he was only 15, Bombardier built his first snow machine. His father had given him an automobile and young Armand removed the engine and mounted it on the family sleigh. He attached a hand-made pro-

peller to the engine drive shaft. To the astonishment of his neighbours, Armand and his brother Leopold raced this primitive snowmobile through the town.

In 1934, Bombardier's son Yvon died of appendicitis during a raging winter storm. All the roads were blocked with snow. Bombardier's snow machines were lying in pieces in the garage. There was no way to transport his son to the hospital. Spurred on by the death of his son, Bombardier set out to work on developing a machine that would end the isolation of winter.

The next year he travelled through Quebec taking his invention with him. Everywhere he went he became front-page news. He was granted a patent for his snowmobile, which was called the



B7. "B" stood for Bombardier and "7" stood for the number of passengers it could hold. It cost \$7500 and Bombardier sold 50 of them. They were used as buses and for medical transport in the winter.

A later version of the B7 was used during World War II. In 1959, Bombardier introduced a two-passenger sport

model. He wanted to call these snowmobiles "Skidogs," but decided to change the name to "Skidoo." Bombardier's inventions have been used around the world.

- 1. The photo shows the Model T Ford Bombardier converted into a snowmobile in 1928 with the help of his brother-in-law. What changes did Bombardier make to create this early snow machine?
- 2. a) Many people suggest that genius is the result of circumstances and environment. Do you agree? How did these two factors contribute to Bombardier's invention?
 - b) What other factors contribute to genius?

shown the value of the airplane to Canada's remote northern communities.

Eventually, the public and the government began to see the possibilities of passenger air travel. By 1927, small carrier planes were flying people from city to city, but there was no national air service. In the same year, a young American airmail pilot, Charles A. Lindbergh, completed the first non-stop transatlantic flight from New York to Paris. This important event sig-

nalled the possibility of long-distance air travel. American investors wanted to set up transcontinental air passenger service between Canada and the United States. Commonwealth countries saw the possibility of a British around-the-world network. Eventually, in 1937, the Canadian Minister of Transport, C. D. Howe, decided to create an airline owned by the Canadian government. He formed Trans-Canada Airlines, which in 1964 became Air Canada.

Barnstorming pilot Fred McCall at the Calgary Exhibition in 1919. He once crashlanded on top of a merry-go-round, but no one was hurt.



Urbanization

People continued to move into Canada's cities in the 1920s. Many were farm hands and farm children. New farm machinery meant that fewer hands were needed on farms, Also, land was no longer readily available at cheap prices, so children found they could not buy land near their family farms. Many farmers and young people left the countryside and moved to the towns and cities looking for new job opportunities. The high costs of machinery, rising freight rates, and poor wheat crops in the early years of the decade also made farming on the Prairies less profitable for many.

In the Maritimes, rising unemployment forced many to leave the region for cities further west. Many industries had moved to Central Canada. New technology such as the motor boat and refrigeration also meant that fewer fishery workers were needed on boats. Many fishers went to work in city factories.

In the late 1920s, the economic boom and promise of growing industries drew

people into the cities. By 1931, over 52 per cent of Canada's total population lived in cities or towns. Montreal grew by 38 per cent over the decade, Toronto by 32 per cent, and Vancouver by 48 per cent. In fact, Vancouver surpassed Winnipeg as Canada's third largest city. The opening of the Panama Canal helped to fuel Vancouver's growth, since ships could now travel between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans without having to go around South America. Vancouver was emerging as a major port for world trade. In Ontario, thousands of people flocked to Windsor to work in the burgeoning automobile industry.

More skyscrapers began to appear on major city skylines as well. In Toronto, the Canadian Imperial Bank of Commerce moved into a new 32-storey tower, the tallest in the British Empire. The Canadian Pacific Railway and Dominion Bank were also housed in impressive office towers.

The automobile also changed the face of cities. Cars made it possible for people to live farther from their place of work. People sought open green spaces for their houses, so suburbs started to sprawl on the outskirts of many cities. It became increasingly difficult to sell a house without a garage and a driveway. As more people moved into cities, there were increasing demands for more schools, housing, hospitals, and social services.

Canada's Urban Population

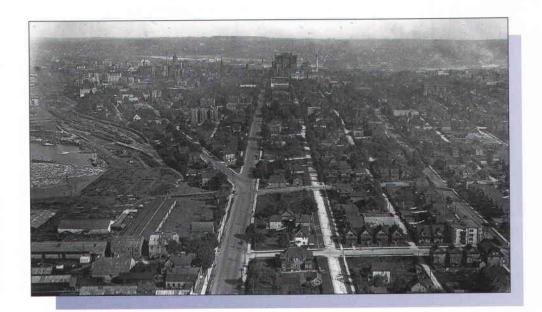
4 - 4	1921	1931
Canada	47.4%	52.5%
Maritimes	38.8	39.7
Prince Edward Island	18.8	19.5
Nova Scotia	44.8	46.6
New Brunswick	35.2	35.4
Quebec	51.8	59.5
Ontario	58.8	63.1
Manitoba	41.5	45.2
Saskatchewan	16.8	20.3
Alberta	30.7	31.7
British Columbia	50.9	62.3

Note: Definition of urban (pre-1951), all incorporated cities, towns, and villages. Source: *Canada Year Book*, 1931.

Fads, Fashions, and American Influences

In the 1920s, people eagerly took up the latest fads and crazes. For many, the fads were a way to escape from the painful memories of the war and enjoy life again. No one can explain exactly how fads catch on, but suddenly many people become interested in a dance, fashion, game, sport, or other activity and take it up with great enthusiasm. Usually the craze does not last long. Fads are often dropped as quickly as they are taken up.

Most fads came into Canada from the United States in the 1920s. The Twenties saw the beginning of **mass media** advertising in North America. Radio broadcasts, newspapers, glossy magazines, billboards, and movies poured into Canada from the United States. Canadians admired fashions from New York, bought American-made vacuum cleaners and other appliances, and watched American movies. Gradually, some people began to feel uneasy about American influences on Canadian life and culture. But it was not until the



Vancouver in the 1930s. What key features do you notice about the city? 1930s that the Canadian government took some steps to counter foreign influences.

One of the first fads of the 1920s was the ancient Chinese game of mahjong. Mahjong is a combination of dice and dominoes. The game caught on quickly across North America. In homes everywhere people were shouting pungt and chowl and other Chinese words connected with the game. Mahjong parties became the rage and people even imported Chinese robes, furniture, and decorative objects to add to the atmosphere. But by 1927, the novelty had worn off. It was time for a new fad.

The new fad was the crossword puzzle. Two young American publishers, Simon and Schuster, brought out a book of crossword puzzles with a pencil attached. Suddenly, everyone was crazy about crosswords. Dictionary sales soared. Some railways even provided dictionaries to help travellers solve crossword puzzles.

Long races and contests of every kind also became immensely popular. Non-stop talking, kissing, eating, drinking, flagpole sitting, and rocking-chair marathons were some of the contests in which people tried to establish records.

Of all the marathons, dancing was the real rage. Dancers competed for prizes of thousands of dollars. Couples dragged

themselves around the dance floor with blistered feet and aching backs. One man dropped dead on the dance floor after 87 hours of continuous dancing. Some contestants kept themselves awake with smelling salts and ice packs. Mary "Hercules" Promitis of Pittsburgh took a tip from bare-knuckle prizefighters and soaked her feet in vinegar and brine for three weeks before a 1928 marathon. Her feet were so pickled that she felt no pain at all!

Fads also swept the world of fashion. For young women, the "flapper look" was in. A flapper was a young woman who dressed outrageously. In winter, she wore galoshes with buckles unfastened to create the greatest possible flap. Hemlines rose above the knees and silk stockings were rolled down. Long hair was cut and set in a short "bobbed" style. Fashions for a young man were often as outrageous. He sported baggy pants or knickers, a bright snappy hat, and a bow tie. His hair was greased down and parted in the middle to imitate the popular movie idols of the day. While these fashions were the latest craze, they did not reflect day-to-day life for most Canadian women and men. Most Canadians admired from afar those daring and wealthy enough to wear these latest fashions.

Entertainment

Jazz moved north from New Orleans in the United States and was made popular by such musicians as Duke Ellington and Louis Armstrong, both Black Americans. The dance of the decade-the Charleston-also emerged out of Black American culture. Its fast and wild pace quickly caught on with the high-spirited younger generation. Members of the Boston City Council tried to have the dance banned, but the Charleston was here to stay. It became the emblem of the roaring "Jazz Age." Black culture was

Flappers in 1928. How did the style suggest the outrageous?





IMPACT ON SOCIETY

TWENTIES TALK

Every generation seems to have its own characteristic expressions or slang. "Cool" and "sweet" are just some of the slang words we use today. Slang refers to informal words or phrases. The expressions are often associated with a particular group and represent certain feelings or attitudes. When

these feelings and attitudes change, slang expressions may pass out of use. Our language is always changing. Sometimes slang words become part of common usage and are entered into our formal dictionaries. Do you recognize any of these expressions from the 1920s?

Expression	Meaning Meaning	Expression	Meaning
all wet	wrong, mistaken	kiddo	friendly form of address
baloney	nonsense	kisser	lips
bee's knees	compliment meaning a wonderful	a line	insincere flattery
	person or thing	ossified	drunk
big cheese	very important person	ritzy, swanky	elegant
bump off	to murder	real McCoy	genuine article
bunk	nonsense	runaround	delaying action
carry a torch	to be hopelessly in love	scram	to leave quickly
cat's meow	superb, wonderful	speakeasy	a bar selling illegal liquor
cheaters	eyeglasses	spiffy	fashionable
crush	falling in love	swell	marvellous
dogs	human feet	whoopee	a wild time
flat tire	boring person		
gate crasher	an uninvited guest		
giggle water	alcohol		
hip	up-to-date		
high hat	snobbish		
hooch	bootleg liquor		
hoofer	chorus girl		

- 1. Are any expressions in the list above still used today? Which? Why do you think they have survived?
- 2. Create a conversation between two students using the above expressions. Role play the conversation for the class or other pairs.
- 3. In groups, develop your own list of current teenage slang expressions. Which modern expressions have similar meanings to those listed above? What does this suggest?
- 4. Canadian English is different from American or British English. Make a list of words or expressions that can be considered "Canadianisms." Check your list in a Canadian dictionary.

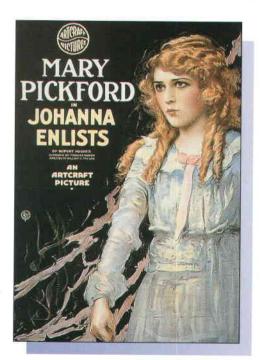
The Charleston became one of the most popular dances in the 1920s.



enjoying a resurgence in the United States and its influences were felt in Canada.

Talking films were another amazing invention of the 1920s. But "talkies" did not arrive in Canada until 1927. For most of the decade, films were silent. The stars of Hollywood's silent screen were idolized

Mary Pickford was a major Hollywood star and went on to found United Artists with Douglas Fairbanks, Charlie Chaplin, and D. W. Griffith.



by the Canadian public. They provided excitement that ordinary people sometimes lacked in their daily lives. Charlie Chaplin, affectionately called the "Little Tramp," needed no words to get across his hilarious comic routines. Rudolph Valentino and Greta Garbo were other great stars on the silver screen. When Valentino died in 1926, police had to be called in to control the screaming mob.

The Canadian-born star, Mary Pickford, became one of Hollywood's greatest success stories. Born in Toronto in 1893, she started on the stage at the age of five. At the height of her career, she was earning \$10 000 a week. In addition to being an actor, she was also a successful business woman. With Douglas Fairbanks and D. W. Griffith, she started the film production company known as United Artists.

Movie-going became part of life for many people. By the end of the decade, there were more than 900 movie houses across Canada. Movies were here to stay. Every kid wanted to spend Saturday afternoon at the show, and for many adults Hollywood movies were the most popular entertainment.

But while Hollywood had a great influence on Canadians, Canadians also had a major influence on Hollywood. Mary Pickford was not the only Canadian talent to make a mark in the American movie business. Several other Canadians including Louis B. Mayer, Walter Huston, Jack Warner, Norma Shearer, and Marie Dressler were influential in Hollywood during these early years. Warner and Mayer founded two of Hollywood's major studios. Canada's film industry at this time was focused mainly on newsreels and short documentaries. After Famous Players' (a subsidiary of United Artists) took over the leading Canadian cinema chain in 1923, Hollywood movies dominated cinema screens across Canada.

🖰 Canadian Culture

Popular movies, music, dance, and fashions were dominated by American influences, but more Canadians were becoming concerned with creating distinctively Canadian art. The Group of Seven artists in many ways led the way. Group of Seven artist Arthur Lismer wrote, "After 1919, most creative people, whether in painting, writing or music, began to have a guilty feeling that Canada was as yet unwritten, unpainted, unsung . . . In 1920, there was a job to be done."

As more Canadian artists focused on Canadian themes, magazines, journals, and other organizations were formed to promote them. The Canadian Authors' Association was founded in 1921 to back Canadian writers. More art schools opened in cities across the country. Emily Carr became the first woman artist to gain national and international recognition for her painting. Later in her career, she also won fame for her writing. Other organizations to promote Canadian culture would be formed in the 1930s.

Women in the 1920s

Women in the 1920s still did not enjoy all the privileges men had. Although women had won the right to vote during the war, few women were elected to the House of Commons or to provincial governments. In the 1921 federal election, Agnes Macphail was the only woman elected. She found she could not do her job in the House of Commons "without being ballyhooed like a bearded lady." She said, "I was a curiosity, a freak." Despite the obstacles, she strongly supported women's rights, and worked to improve conditions for farmers, miners, and prisoners.

In the 1920s, women were still seen mainly as homemakers. They were expected to give up the jobs they had in the war and return to looking after their husbands and families. By 1929, women made up 20 per cent of the workforce, but most worked in traditional female jobs as domestic servants, secretaries, sales clerks, or factory workers. The majority of these women were single, since employers expected women to give up their jobs when they married. Since these "female" jobs were considered less valuable than the work men did, wages were low. Women who did the same jobs as men were also paid less. On average, women earned between 54 and 60 per cent of what men earned. There were also still few women in the professions outside teaching and nursing. Only a few overcame the obstacles to become doctors, lawyers, or professors.

Women from minority groups faced even greater challenges. Many employers discriminated against Chinese and Japanese women, and women of colour. Employers simply would not hire them. Many of these women could not find jobs outside their own ethnic communities. Japanese and Chinese were barred from entering Canadian colleges, universities, and hospitals.

The Persons Case

The Persons Case underlined the inequality women still faced. In 1916, Emily Murphy was made the first woman judge in the British Empire and she was appointed to an Alberta court. A lawyer in her courtroom challenged her right to judge any case because she was a woman. He said that no woman was a "person" in the eyes of the law. Emily Murphy was supported by the Supreme Court of Alberta, which said that a woman had every right to be a judge. This should have settled the matter, but it did not.

Over the next several years, women's groups asked the prime minister to



Netsurfer Visit the web site for the Status of Women Canada at www.swc-cfc.gc.ca.

FAST FORWARD



The contribution of the "Famous Five" to Canadian history is still remembered today. In 1999, Edmonton artist Barbara Paterson unveiled her bronze statues of the Famous Five at Olympic Plaza in Calgary. She shows the women in an imaginary scene when they hear the exciting news of the decision that women are "persons" in the eyes of the law. Another set of statues will be placed in the Parliament Buildings at Ottawa, honouring the contribution of these women to Canada's history.

appoint a woman to the Senate. The British North America Act stated that qualified "persons" could receive appointments. Again the question was raised: Was a woman a "person" in the eyes of the law? Was a woman qualified for an appointment to the Senate?

In August 1927, Emily Murphy and four other prominent women decided to petition the prime minister. The group of women included Nellie McClung, Louise McKinney, Henrietta Edwards, Irene Parlby, and Judge Murphy. They asked, "Does the word 'persons' in Section 24 of the British North America Act include female 'persons'?" In April 1928, the Supreme Court of Canada decided that women were not "persons" qualified for appointment to the Canadian Senate.

Judge Murphy and her supporters, nicknamed the "Famous Five," were discouraged, but not defeated. They decided to appeal their case to the Privy Council in Britain. After three months of consideration, the judges of the Privy Council announced their decision. They declared that the word "persons" referred to men and women. Women were indeed qualified to sit in the Senate of Canada. Emily Murphy won her fight.

Many of her friends thought that Emily Murphy deserved to be the first woman appointed to the Senate. However, it was two more years before the first woman was named to a Senate seat. When it did happen it was not Emily Murphy, but Cairine Wilson, who received this honour. Senator Wilson of Montreal had worked as an organizer and president of the National Federation of Liberal Women.





Canadian Sports

The 1920s were also a golden age of sport in Canada. Many of the sports heroes of the decade were amateurs. They seemed to come out of nowhere to grab the headlines and establish world records. Percy Williams is an example. This 20-year-old sprinter. almost unknown in Canada, stunned onlookers at the 1928 Amsterdam Olympics. In the 100- and 200-metre sprints, he won a sensational double gold victory. Competing athletes acknowledged him as "the greatest sprinter the world has ever seen."

Canada's most famous male athlete of the first half-century was Lionel Conacher. He piled up trophies and medals in wrestling, boxing, lacrosse, hockey, football, and baseball. One day in 1922,



SPOTLIGHT ON ...

Emily Murphy

Emily Murphy was a writer, journalist, magistrate, reform-er, and famous crusader for women's rights. In her early career, Murphy published a series of popular and delightful books of personal impressions under the pen name "Janey Canuck." Born in Cookstown, Ontario, she later moved west with her family and spent a large part of her life in Edmonton, Alberta. It was there that she developed her interest in law and women's rights.

One afternoon, when Emily was visiting a prairie farm, she met a bitterly distraught woman. The woman's hus-

band had, without warning, sold their land and gone off to the United States. The woman was left penniless and homeless. Women at that time had no property rights. Men could sell land and home without their wives' consent and without giving her any part. It was law. Emily Murphy determined that day to change that law. Seven years later, she had won the fight. In 1911, Alberta passed the Dower Act giving women rights to one-third share of their husband's property.

Emily Murphy went on to become the first woman magistrate in the British Empire. She led the battle to have a woman judge preside over cases involving women and children so that their cases could be fairly heard and their interests protected. She also campaigned against drug addiction and fought to prove that women were "persons" under the law and could therefore be appointed to the Senate.

- 1. Why do you think it was important for women to win property rights?
- 2. Today, a "Governor General's Award in Commemoration of the Persons Case" is given every year on October 18. The Award recognizes the contributions of individuals in both the paid and unpaid workforce to promote equality for women in Canada. Find out about women who have won the Award in the past. Who would you nominate for the Award today? Why?

Conacher starred in championship games in two different sports. He hit a triple in the last inning to give Toronto Hillcrest the city baseball championship. Then he drove across town to play in the Ontario Lacrosse Championship. In this game, he scored four times. Conacher also excelled in football. In the 1922 Grey Cup game, he scored 15 points leading the Toronto Argonauts to a 23-0 win over the Edmonton Eskimos.

Women also enjoyed a golden age in sport. Before World War I, the sports considered "proper" for women included croquet, skating, fencing, cycling, and lawn tennis. Women participated in many other sports, but it was not until the 1920s that it was socially acceptable for women to play body-contact sports. Women began to compete more actively in a wide range of organized team sports.

Sprinter Percy Williams is congratulated for his victory at the Amsterdam Olympics in 1928. He was one of the sports sensations in the "Roaring Twenties."



In the early part of the twentieth century, basketball became popular and was one of the first sports played by women on the world circuit. The Edmonton Grads dominated women's basketball for over 20 years. From 1915 to 1940, the team played 522 games and lost only 20. The Edmonton Grads represented Canada at four Olympics [1924-1936] and won 27 consecutive games. Their conditioning and quick-passing teamwork made the Grads the undisputed world champions of women's basketball. Dr. James Naismith. the Canadian-born inventor of basketball. proclaimed the Edmonton Grads the greatest basketball team that ever stepped out on a floor.

Among individual Canadian female athletes, Fanny "Bobbie" Rosenfeld was one of the best. She excelled in so many sports during her athletic career that she was called the "best woman athlete of the half-century." She was a star at basketball,

The 1920s were a golden age of women's sports. The Edmonton Commercial Grads dominated the world of women's basketball for over 20 years.



hockey, softball, and tennis, but her greatest triumphs came in track and field. During the Amsterdam Olympics of 1928, Rosenfeld won a silver medal in the 100-metre dash and a gold medal in the women's 400-metre relay. High-jumper Ethel Catherwood from Saskatoon also won a gold medal at the Amsterdam Olympics.

Unfortunately, the golden age of women's sports did not last. By the mid-1930s, many educators and medical doctors argued that girls and women were "biologically unfit" for competitive athletics. Competitive sports were considered "unfeminine." Not until the 1960s did Canadian women have the opportunity to regain the glory they won in the 1920s in a wide range of sports.

Professional Sports

Professional sports also flourished during the 1920s. Hockey and baseball were two examples. As cities grew, they could afford to build larger hockey arenas and baseball diamonds. But since professional teams needed a large market, strong ties developed in both these sports with the United States. The National Hockey League (NHL) was formed in Canada in 1917. In 1925, the Boston Bruins were the first American team to join the League. Other American teams including the New York Rangers, Chicago Black Hawks, and Detroit Red Wings soon followed.

The NHL became the top professional league in North America. Most of the American clubs were owned and managed by Canadians. The players were also almost all Canadians. People across the country tuned in to "Hockey Night in Canada" broadcast over the radio with Foster Hewitt giving the play-by-play. But by 1939, there were only two Canadian teams left in the NHL—Toronto and Montreal. Professional hockey had become centred in the United States, even though most players were still Canadian.



An NHL hockey game in Maple Leaf Gardens 1932, its opening year.



Developing Skills: Creating Multi-Media Presentations

We sometimes think that the only way to communicate history is to write about it. But there are many different ways to present information and ideas about the past. A museum, for example, can mount exhibits or displays on particular periods or themes, such as life during the Depression or the building of the Canadian Pacific Railway. The curator, a historian who manages a museum's collection, gathers photographs, models, costumes, artifacts, and primary source documents. These items are then organized, carefully labelled, and exhibited so that the story unfolds before the eyes of the museum visitors. Sometimes audiotapes are prepared for people or a tour guide presents the exhibit.

Other people interested in history use film as their medium. Films can feature people reminiscing about what happened to them in the past and how world events affected their lives. Films can also be re-enactments of historical events. Sometimes they include actual footage of past events, carefully edited with voice-overs filling in the story.

Another creative way of communicating history is with a time capsule. A time capsule is a collection of objects representing everyday life, usually placed in the cornerstone of a public building. The idea is that a future generation can open the time capsule and discover what was important to people from another generation.

Suppose you want to show what life was like in Canada during a decade like the "Roaring Twenties."

Step 1

Divide the class into groups. Each group chooses a decade from Canadian history, e.g., the 1920s, the 1950s, or the 1990s to present.

Step 2

Each group should select a different way of presenting their decade. Use the following list for ideas and remember that you can also combine a number of these suggestions in your presentation.

exhibit or display	video	time capsule
display	photo essay	scrapbook
bulletin board	collection of	cartoon or
mural	artifacts	comic strip
timeline mural	news program	vertical file
performance	demonstration	artistic creation
computer	advertisement	brochure/
program	simulation	pamphlets
poster	game	skit
costumes	slide show	web pages
puppet show	learning centre	docudrama
models	project cube	book or maga-
overheads		zine covers

Step 3

Research information on life in your decade. Besides written work, try to include some or all of the following: music, pictures, artifacts, recorded interviews, models, charts, and graphs. Organize your materials into sub-topics so that they tell a complete story. Accompany your visuals with brief written comments and notes. The emphasis of the presentation, though, should be on the visual and not the written.

Step 4

Each group can set up their presentation at a different station in the classroom. Groups can take turns touring the room.

Step 5

Develop 15 questions for the other groups about your decade. Give other groups time to visit your display and answer the questions about it. Encourage them to ask questions as well.

Step 6

Have others evaluate how useful your visual presentation was in helping them learn about life in Canada during that decade.

Activities

Understand Facts and Concepts

1. Add these new terms to your Factfile.

radio
mass production
assembly line
Model T Ford
bush pilots

mass media flapper jazz talkies Persons Case

Royal Canadian Air Force (RCAF) Famous Five

- 2. Imagine that you are living on a homestead in Alberta during the early 1920s. Your farm is a long way from urban centres. Your nearest neighbours are located a few kilometres away. What difference would a radio make to your family's life?
- 3. a) List 10 jobs that were created as a result of the automobile.
 - b) What problems did automobiles create?
- 4. What role did airplanes play in the 1920s? Why were these roles important?
- 5. Using a web diagram, outline the major factors that contributed to the growth of cities in the 1920s.
- 6. Quiz a partner on the individuals highlighted in this chapter. Describe their achievements and have your partner tell you who they are.

Think and Communicate

- 7. Create a diagram outlining the benefits and problems that have resulted from the invention of the automobile.
- 8. Since crossword puzzles were a great fad of the 1920s, try making some. Use a sheet of graph paper. The answers should all be words associated with the 1920s. Include clues to help your classmates solve the crosswords.
- 9. Make models or bulletin board displays for a crystal radio, batteryless radio, Model T Ford, or other early car models. Include labels and short notes on how these new inventions worked and the effects they had on life and the economy in the 1920s. Or, create a timeline mural showing the development of radio, automobiles, airplanes, or telephones from their invention to the present.
- 10. Create posters, stamps, or sports cards to celebrate great Canadian athletes of the 1920s.
- 11. Gather recent issues of the following magazines: Chatelaine, Popular Science, Maclean's, Sports Illustrated, Canadian Living, and Consumer's Report. Imagine these magazines were published in the 1920s. In groups, prepare an article for one of these

magazines based on some aspect of life in the 1920s that you have read about in this chapter. For example, you could develop a profile of a prominent athlete for *Sports Illustrated* or report on the latest radio design for *Popular Science*. Include photos, illustrations, or cartoons in your articles.

Apply Your Knowledge

- 12. a) Hollywood movies in the 1920s reflected life in the United States. When they did include Canadian society, history, or geography, the scenes were often inaccurate. Why do you think Canadians were so eager to accept Hollywood movies in the 1920s?
 - b) Take a class survey. Find out which movies students in your class have seen most recently. Where were these movies made? Where were they set? What were the main themes?
 - c) Discuss the results. Are Canadian cinemas still dominated by Hollywood films? Why do you think this is so? What effects do you think Hollywood has on your life?
- 13. a) Many people today insist that North Americans are completely dependent on the automobile. In groups, list all the ways you use the automobile in a typical week. Could you live without a car? How would your life be different without the automobile?
 - b) If automobiles had not been invented, how would Canada be different today?
- 14. Listen to some music of the 1920s. Describe the themes, mood, rhythms, use of lyrics, and major instruments used. Compare them with a form of music of your choice from today. How do you think music reflects the mood and major concerns of an era?
- 15. a) In groups, go through the sports pages of a national newspaper. How many women and women's sports leagues are featured on these pages? Do women have equality with men in sports today? Why or why not? Give reasons for your answer.
 - b) Do athletes of all races have equality in sports today? Explain.

The Dirty Thirties



*

Tales of Despair

The economic upswing in the mid-1920s gave many Canadians a new sense of confidence. Industries were growing and more people had jobs. It seemed as if good times had returned and were here to stay. But in 1929, the bubble of prosperity burst. The 1930s were years of despair for many Canadians. This is how two Canadians described their experiences in the Dirty Thirties.

I was always sick two Fridays of every school year, that is when I was in grades 10 and 11. The first Friday was in early October and the second was late in June.

Those two days were when the school had its big dances, the two of the year. Sure, I got asked. But I always had the flu, which translated means I didn't have any clothes. At school we wore a sort of black uniform, all the girls, so that's how I got by there, but at a dance, no way.

Kinda sad, isn't it? I might have met my one true love at one of those affairs.

I remember those '30s sunrises, all dirty from the dust in the air, as I walked down to the town office early to get my paperwork done. No matter how early I went in, the men would be lined up, waiting, a long



A painting by Nathan Petroff entitled Modern Times (1937) captures the mood of the Depression years.

line in the street outside the office. Not much talk, nothing to say. Nowhere else to go, all the time in the world. Dust in their clothes, dust blowing around them. We opened the office at nine, and they would come in, one at a time, very orderly. There were farmers from the district, men I knew around town, people I'd known at school. And if they had ridden in on the rods [railways] from God knows where, they were the same kind of people. Decent Canadians who ought to be doing a job every day, not lining up for a dole [relief payments] we didn't have.

I spent the days saying no to them. No, no work on offer. No, no food vouchers this week. No, no housing allotments. No, nothing we could do for their sick baby, nothing

for the cattle they couldn't feed, nothing for the crop they couldn't sell, nothing to stop the bank foreclosing. That was life as a town manager in Saskatchewan in the 1930s. And the ones who knew me would say, 'Right, Cec. Thanks anyway.'



- 1. a) What do the quotations above tell you about the hardships people faced in the 1930s?
 - b) What are their reactions to these hardships? How do you think they will cope?
- 2. a) In the 1930s there was a devastating drought on the Prairies that turned the region into a dust bowl. What effects would this drought have on the economy of Canada in the 1930s? Explain.
 - b) Do you think a similar drought could happen today? Why or why not?

8

The Great Depression

Though not everyone shared in the prosperity of the 1920s, there was a general mood of optimism in the country. But this mood changed drastically in the early 1930s. Canada was plunged into the **Great Depression**—the worst economic downturn the country has ever faced. How could prosperity turn to poverty for so many so quickly? What caused the Great Depression?

Many people would say that the Depression was caused by the stock mar-

ket crash of 1929. However, the stock market crash was not the *cause* of the Great Depression. It was only a *symptom*. It was a sign that the economy of North America was very sick. To understand the Depression, it helps to understand a little about how our economy works and what was happening in the 1920s.

The Business Cycle

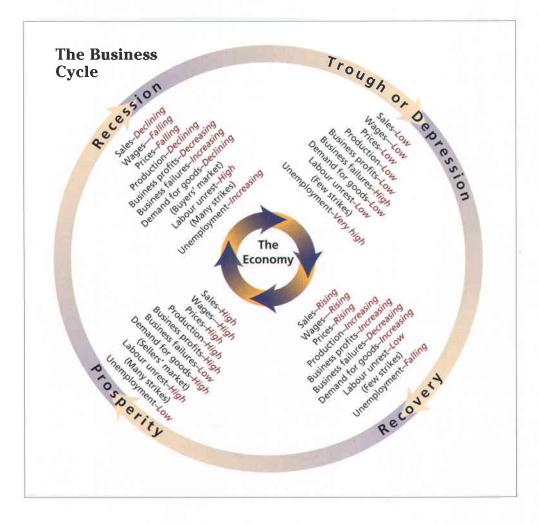
Economic conditions are constantly changing. There are good times when the economy is on the upswing, and bad times when business declines. Economists who chart the upswings and downswings

of the economy over a period of years call these ups and downs the **business cycle**. The business cycle includes four basic stages: Prosperity, Recession, Trough or Depression, and Recovery.

The economy of North America in the late 1920s is a good example of the prosperity stage in the business cycle. In this stage, prices and wages are high. Few people are unemployed. Businesses are making high profits and production is booming. The general mood is optimistic and people are willing to take risks.

When a recession sets in, business begins to slow down. Companies that have produced too many goods begin to realize they cannot sell everything. Therefore, they lay off some workers and cut production. Unemployment rises. Workers who have been laid off have less money to spend. Others who still have jobs are more careful about how they spend or invest their money. Sales begin to fall.

If the recession continues and becomes very serious and widespread, it is known as a depression. Businesses are forced to lay off many more employees. Unemployment reaches very high levels. Many businesses go bankrupt. Stock markets crash. The economy does not always fall into a depression. Sometimes it just hits a low point known as the trough, and then slowly begins to recover. A depression is the worst case scenario.



As T. C. Douglas, the first leader of the New Democratic Party once said:

A recession is when a neighbour has to tighten his belt. A depression is when you have to tighten your own belt. And a panic is when you have no belt to tighten and your pants fall down.

The economy goes into the **recovery** stage of the business cycle when a shortage of consumer goods develops because of the cutbacks in production. People want and need more goods than are being produced. To meet the demand, businesses begin to increase production again and to call back workers. Wage earners now have more money to spend. Eventually prosperity returns.

The Great Crash

"Black Tuesday"—the day the stock market crashed in October 1929 was one of the most dramatic events signalling the Depression. In the 1920s, many people played the stock market. People dreamed of getting rich overnight. How do people make a fortune on the stock market? The

Stock speculators shaken in wild day of panic

29 October 1929

New York stock market crashes

30 October 1929

Greatest collapse ever witnessed in Canada

One in five Canadian workers
have no job

answer is simple: buy plenty of stocks when their price is low and sell those stocks when their price is high. It sounds easy, but a great deal of knowledge, skill, and good luck are needed to make a fortune! Many people who invested in the stock market lost everything in the crash.

Panic on Wall Street outside the New York stock exchange in 1929. The panic quickly spread to Canada.





Developing Skills: Using Simulation Games

What was "Black Tuesday" really like? How did the investors, stockbrokers, and company owners react when the stock market crashed?

One way to gain insight into the past is through historical simulation games. A simulation is a situation game. It involves you in a real-life situation and you must decide how you will act. The Stock Market Game outlined below gives you a chance to experience the thrills and defeats of the stock market in the late 1920s.

The debriefing process is crucial to any simulation game. A simulation helps you to think critically and to make judgements. Debriefing means that at each stage of the game, you stop and think. Why did you act as you did?

It doesn't matter if the game doesn't duplicate exactly what happened in reality. What matters is that it helps you to understand the complexity of events in the past, why people acted as they did, and the decisions they faced. After the game, you can compare what happened in the game to actual historical events.

The Stock Market Game

- 1. Choose three class members to be stockbrokers. The brokers set up their offices in the corners of the classroom. Brokers are given a supply of stock certificates and a stock record page.
- 2. The rest of the class are investors. Each investor keeps an expense sheet.
- 3. The purpose of the game is to gain experience in playing the stock market. Your aim as investors is to make as much money as possible. You start with \$5000 that has been left to you as an inheritance in your grandmother's will. You may invest any amount of money in one company or all three. For the purpose of the game, you cannot sell your stock during the first three stages. Investors must carefully record each purchase on their expense sheets.

A Stock Market Glossary

Stock: a share in the ownership of a company (e.g., if you buy 100 shares in a company at \$25 a share and the company has a total of 10 000 shares, you own 1/100 of the company)

Investor: a person who buys shares in a company

Stockbroker: a person who buys and sells stocks on the stock exchange for people who want to invest in the stock market

Stock Exchange: a marketplace where stocks are bought and sold

Stock Certificate: a paper proving ownership of a stock or share

Capital Gain: the profit or money a share-holder earns by selling stocks at a higher price than he or she bought them (e.g., if you buy 100 shares at \$25 a share, your total investment is \$2500; 3 months later if the stock price rises to \$35 a share and you sell your 100 shares, then you receive \$3500—your profit or capital gain is \$1000)

Dividends: the share of a company's profits paid to shareholders

Stage 1 Year 1925

Stocks for the following three companies are for sale:

Consolidated Mining and

Smelting of Canada at \$50 a share
Atlantic Electric Light at \$30 a share
International Nickel at \$25 a share

Investors are given time to visit the stockbrokers, make their purchases, and record their investments.

Stage 2 Year 1927

Two years have passed. The economy of the country has been strong and the stocks have increased in value. Each investor calculates the profits made on these stocks if they had been sold in 1927. Your teacher will tell you the amount of the increase.

Stage 3 September 1929

Each investor calculates the profits made on the stocks if they had been sold in 1929.

Debriefing:

- a) If this were real life, how would you feel?
- b) What would investors do with their profits?
- c) What would companies probably do with their profits?

Stage 4 29 October 1929—"Black Tuesday"

Each investor calculates the losses on these stocks. Investors should be given an opportunity to sell stocks to the teacher if they wish.

Debriefing:

- a) How do you feel about your losses?
- b) What would you do if this were real life?
- c) How would your actions affect the economy of the country?
- d) How would companies suffer?

Stage 5 Year 1932

Investors who have held on to their stocks must calculate their losses.

Debriefing:

- a) What alternatives are open to investors?
- b) Who would be buying stocks in 1932?

© Causes of the Great Depression

There seem to be as many explanations for the Depression as there are experts to diagnose the illness. However, some of the major causes are as follows.

1 Over-Production and Over-Expansion

During the prosperous 1920s, agriculture and industry reached high levels of production. Many industries were expanding. Large amounts of profits were spent adding to factories or building new ones. Huge supplies of food, newsprint, minerals, and manufactured goods were produced and simply stockpiled. Automobile centres such as Oshawa and Windsor manufactured 400 000 cars in 1930. Canadians already owned over a million cars and in the best year ever had purchased only 260 000.

Even in the general prosperity of the 1920s, Canadians could afford to buy only so many goods. As a result, large stocks of newsprint, radios, shirts, shoes, and cars

piled up unsold in warehouses. Soon factory owners began to panic and slowed down their production. They laid off workers. Laid-off workers and their families had even less money to spend on goods. Sales slowed down even more.

Industrialists seemed to have forgotten a basic lesson in economics: produce only as many items as you can sell. In the 1920s, wages were simply not high enough for people to buy all the products turned out by the factories.

2 Canada's Dependence on a Few Primary Products

Canada's economy depended heavily on a few primary or basic products, known as **staples**. These included wheat, fish, minerals, and pulp and paper. These goods were Canada's most important exports. As long as world demand for these products was strong, Canada would prosper. However, if there was a surplus of these goods on the world market, or if foreign countries stopped buying from Canada, our economy would be in serious trouble. Regions which depended largely on one primary product found themselves in deep economic trouble during the Depression. The Depression had hit countries around the world and demand for Canada's products fell. The Maritimes, which depended heavily on fish, and the West, which was geared toward wheat production, were especially hard hit.

In the late 1920s, for example, Canada faced growing competition from other wheat-exporting countries including Argentina and Australia. With a surplus on the world market, the price of wheat began to fall. To add to the problem, western farmers were faced with terrible droughts in the summers of 1929, 1931, and 1933-1937. Without adequate rainfall, crops failed. With little income, farmers could not purchase machinery and manufactured goods from eastern Canada. Many could not afford to pay the mortgages on their farms.

Secondary industries such as flour mills, which process primary products, also suffer from any slowdown in production. With no wheat to be shipped and no flour to be ground, railways and flour mills lost business. The farmers' problems had caused a chain reaction in many parts of the Canadian economy and society.

3 Canada's Dependence on the United States

The economy of Canada in the 1920s was closely linked with that of the United States. In those years, we bought 65 per cent of our imports from the Americans. Forty per cent of our exports were sent to the United States. The United States was our most important trading partner. It had replaced Britain as the largest buyer of Canadian products and the most important supplier of investment funds for Canadian industries. It was not surprising that when the American economy got sick,

Canada also suffered. One comedian said, "When the United States sneezed, the rest of the world got pneumonia."

When the Depression hit the United States, banks closed. Industries collapsed and people were out of work as factories shut down. No longer did Americans need to buy our lumber, paper, wheat, and minerals. It was inevitable that Canada's economy would suffer too.

4 High Tariffs Choked Off International Trade

In the 1920s, Europe was recovering from a devastating war. Europeans needed many of the surplus manufactured goods that the United States and Canada produced. Unfortunately, European countries were heavily in debt from the war and often could not afford to buy the goods they needed.

At the same time, many countries adopted a policy known as protective tariffs. To protect their home industries from foreign competition, they placed high tariffs on foreign imports. Country X, for example, would find that its goods were being kept out of country Y by high tariffs. Soon country X placed high tariffs on imports from country Y. Thus trade between nations began to slow down around the world. Surplus goods in one country were kept out of another country that needed them because tariffs were so high. While high tariffs were used to protect home industries, they choked off international trade.

5 Too Much Credit Buying

All through the 1920s, Canadians were encouraged by advertising to "buy now, pay later." A famous comedian, Will Rogers, said that the way to solve the traffic problem was to remove from highways all cars that hadn't been paid for. He meant that so many cars were bought on

credit, very few would actually remain on the road. Will Rogers was only joking, but his remark points out that by 1929, credit buying was a well-established custom. Why wait to buy a washing machine or a phonograph or a tractor when you could have it immediately with only a small down payment?

Many families got themselves hopelessly into debt with credit buying. The piano that cost \$445 cash was purchased with \$15 down and \$12 a month for the next four or five years. With the interest payments, it ended up costing far more than it was worth. Sometimes by the time the purchases were paid for, they were ready for the junk pile. One radio comedian joked that he had said to his wife, "One more payment and the furniture is ours." To this she replied, "Good, then we can throw it out and get some new stuff!"

If the wage earner became sick or was laid off work, it was often impossible to keep up the payments. If you fell behind in your payments, the person who sold you the goods had the right to repossess them. As the Depression worsened, many

people lost everything. Their refrigerators, stoves, washing machines, cars, and even their homes were repossessed by their creditors.

6 Too Much Credit Buying of Stocks

For many people in the 1920s, the stock market seemed an easy way to get rich quickly. People in all walks of life gambled on the stock market. Rich business tycoons invested in shares, but so did their chauffeurs and the typists in their offices. Feelings of confidence were at an all-time high.

It was not even necessary to have a lot of money to play the stock market. You could buy stocks on credit just as you could buy a phonograph or a washing machine. All that was needed was a small cash down payment, usually about 10 per cent. The broker loaned you the rest of the money at a high interest rate, of course! To buy \$1000 worth of stock you needed only \$100 cash. The idea was that as soon as your stocks went up in value, you could sell them. Then you paid back your loan

People who could not pay their rents were evicted from their homes, like these people in Montreal.



to your broker and pocketed the profits. This risky process was called "buying on margin."

Buying stocks on margin did not require a large outlay of cash if stocks kept rising quickly in value. But what if your stocks didn't go up? Or, worse still, what if they went down? How would you pay back your loans? You would have to sell your stocks or risk financial ruin.

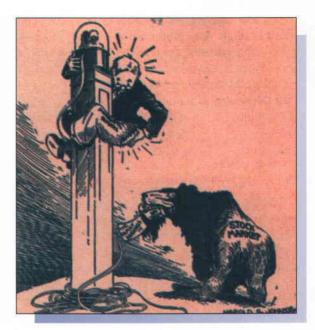
This is exactly what happened in October 1929. When the value of stocks started to drop, people panicked. They decided to sell and get out of the market. Prices fell even lower as more and more stocks were dumped. The market was like a giant roller coaster racing downhill. Nothing could stop it. In a few hours on 29 October 1929, the value of most stocks on the Toronto and Montreal stock exchanges nosedived by more than 50 per cent. Shareholders lost millions. Many big and small investors were wiped out in a few hours.

At first, few people imagined that devastating economic times were around the corner. But slowly, it began to dawn on people that hard times were upon them. The Great Depression had begun.

The Worst Years

Few people were prepared for the conditions they faced in the worst years of the Depression. By 1933, almost a third of all Canadians were out of work. People roamed the country, hitching rides on trains, trying to find odd jobs wherever they could. With no income from jobs, there was often no money for food, clothing, and other necessities. Many people lived near starvation and suffered from malnutrition. In the 1930s, there was no unemployment insurance, no family allowance, and no government sponsored medical care.

Not everyone was in such dire straits. Those with jobs and the wealthy lived



quite comfortably, especially since prices of goods were low. But for many others, the only prospect of help was government relief. **Relief** was emergency financial assistance given to some of the unemployed to keep them from starving.

Governments and Relief

In the past, city governments and private charities had provided help for the poor and needy. But when the Depression hit, city governments were overwhelmed with the numbers of people seeking help. It was clear that the federal and provincial governments had to pitch in.

The federal government was slow to act. Except during wartime, Canadian governments were reluctant to become involved in the economy and in people's individual lives. When the stock market crashed in 1929, William Lyon Mackenzie King was prime minister. King was not the only one to think that the best way to deal with the Depression was to wait it out. He believed the Depression would be shortlived and that better economic times were not far off. But the masses of unemployed

What does this cartoon suggest about playing the stock market?



Netsurfer For an overview of the Depression including photographs, descriptions, and quizzes, visit http://204.244.141.13/ writ_den/h15/direct/htm

Picture Gallery

Windows on Life in the Thirties

In the memory of living Canadians, nothing like the Great Depression had ever happened before. What was it like? The pictures and memories presented on these pages will give you an insight into some of the social conditions. The memories have been collected from interviews with people who remember those times. As you look at each picture and read the quotation, consider the following questions:

- Why did people ride the rails across the country?
- What were conditions like on the Prairies?
- What help was available for people?
- How did they feel about accepting government help? Why?
- In what ways did they try to help themselves?



■ Many unemployed people drifted from town to town across Canada looking for jobs. They rode "free" on the railways by hiding in boxcars, perching on their roofs, or riding the rods underneath the trains.

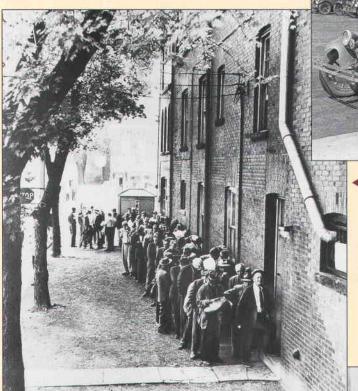
Nature added to the problems of the West by turning off the tap. The resulting drought meant that large sections of the prairie topsoil just blew away during the "Dirty Thirties." Black blizzards of dust buried fences and drifted up to eaves of houses.

Another disaster to hit the West was grasshopper plagues. The insects ate the crops as soon as they popped out of the ground. They even ate clothes hung out to dry on the line. In the 1930s, the Saskatchewan government paid children a penny for each gopher tail they turned in. It was an attempt to save the parched wheat from the hungry rodents.



M

Many penniless prairie families simply gave up in despair and abandoned their farms. The desperation and poverty can be seen on the faces of this family, which is heading for the Peace River country. Between 1931 and 1937, 66 000 people left Saskatchewan, 34 000 left Manitoba, and 21 000 left Alberta.



■ "Pogey" was hobo slang for food, clothing, and shelter provided by public relief agencies. A Manitoba judge, George Stubbs, observed of relief, "It's not quite enough to live on, and a little too much to die on." The unemployed were never given cash, just vouchers. The vouchers could be exchanged for food, rent, and other necessities. This photo shows a soup kitchen line-up in Toronto.

In the Twenties, farmers bought automobiles. Then came the crash and the drought and nobody had any money for gasoline, let alone repairs ... Somebody got the idea of lifting out the engine and taking out the windshield and sticking a tongue onto the chassis ... and that's where old Dobbin and Dolly got back to work again. Two horsepower. Eight kilometres an hour, but those oat burners got you there. Then somebody got the idea ... to call these contraptions Bennett Buggies. Poor old R. B. Bennett. All over ... there were these carved up cars, named after him, and a constant reminder that he'd been prime minister when the disaster struck.

(From Ten Lost Years by Barry Broadfoot, Doubleday, 1973.)

R. B. Bennett was Canada's prime minister during the Depression years.



were not willing to accept government inaction. In 1930, King made what many people believe was the biggest political mistake of his career. He insisted that social welfare (which included providing relief) was the responsibility of the provinces. King also declared that he would not give a "five-cent piece" to any province that did not have a Liberal government.

In the election of 1930, those words came back to haunt him. The voters refused to forget King's "five-cent piece" **speech**. The Liberals were voted out of office, and the Conservative party came into power. The prime minister who replaced Mackenzie King was Richard Bedford Bennett. Bennett accused King of ignoring the plight of the unemployed and the problems caused by the stock market crash.

During the election campaign Bennett declared, "I will find work for all who are willing to work, or perish in the attempt." He also promised to give the provinces \$20 million in emergency funds for relief payments. To deal with foreign trade policies that were choking off Canadian exports, he

promised to "blast our way" into world markets. By raising tariffs on imports, Bennett believed he could boost Canadian manufacturing and provide Canadian businesses with better trading opportunities.

But when Bennett came to power, his policies did little to ease the economic crisis. He did transfer money to the provinces for relief. He also introduced the highest tariff in Canadian history to protect Canadian businesses from foreign competition. Unfortunately, none of these acts had any great impact on the Depression. These measures were like first-aid treatment, but they could not cure the Depression.

There was no uniform system of relief across the country. Federal money went to the provinces. Provinces contributed some additional funds, but passed the problem of how to distribute relief on to local municipalities. Each town and city government administered relief programs in its own way. Even with federal and provincial funds, cities struggled to deal with the vast numbers of needy. During the Depression, people in cities were often worse off than farmers. Farmers who had decent land could at least grow their own food. Some young people who had left farms for jobs in the cities drifted back to their family homesteads.

To cope, many city governments laid off city workers, cut expenses, raised taxes, and borrowed money. Some cities, such as Montreal, went into serious debt. Others insisted that people prove they had lived in the city for a period of time before they could collect relief. This measure was meant to eliminate drifters and to avoid attracting people from areas that had no relief money left to give. To get relief, people often had to prove that they could not pay their rent, and that their phone, water, and electricity services had been cut off. In Ontario, they had to turn in their driver's



A relief camp for single unemployed men during the Depression. Some men called them "slave camps."

licences. Some women found it difficult to get relief. In Montreal, unmarried mothers, widows with young children, and women whose husbands were in jail were at first not allowed to receive relief. This measure was not changed until after women protested in front of the city hall.

In 1932, the government set up a number of relief camps across the country for single unemployed men. The camps were operated by the Department of National Defence. Many were located in isolated northern areas of the country. Single men 18 years of age and older worked eight hours a day in the camps cutting brush, moving rocks, and building roads. In return, they were given food, shelter, clothing, and pay of 20¢ a day. The camps were meant to provide drifters and unemployed men with useful work. The government also hoped to keep any unrest and discontent in check. But the wage of 20¢ a day was considered no better than slave labour by many.

In June 1935, thousands of men fed up with life in the British Columbia relief

camps boarded freight trains bound for Ottawa to protest to the government. Their journey became known as the On-to-Ottawa Trek. As the trekkers moved eastward, they were joined by other men. The trekkers wanted clear economic reforms such as minimum wages and a genuine system of social and unemployment insurance. The men got as far as Regina, where they were stopped by the Mounted Police. Prime Minister Bennett claimed the trekkers were disobeying the law and were part of a plot to overthrow the government. A riot broke out, in which dozens of people were injured and a police officer was killed. The trekkers complaints fell on unsympathetic ears in the Canadian government.

Coping With the Hardships

People often found ingenious ways to cope with the shortages during the Depression. The Bennett Buggy was an example. People also remade old clothes

Typical Prices in 1932

Milk	10¢ a quart
Cheese	33¢ a kilogram
Bread	6¢ a loaf
Rolled oats	11¢ a kilogram
Flour	11¢ a kilogram
Rice	16¢ a kilogram
Tomatoes	6¢ a tin
Potatoes	2¢ a kilogram
Carrots, turnips	9¢ a kilogram
Onions	9¢ a kilogram
Cabbage	5¢ a kilogram
Dried beans	4¢ a package
Prunes	12¢ a package
Chuck roast	29¢ a kilogram
Beef liver	35¢ a kilogram
Butter	57¢ a kilogram
Peanut Butter	35¢ a kilogram
Shortening	35¢ a kilogram
Sugar	11¢ a kilogram

Source: Historical Atlas of Canada, Vol. III.

and helped each other when they could. Having to go on relief was often a last resort. Many people saw applying for relief as an admission of failure. They put off asking until they were desperate. One study showed that unemployed men in Toronto waited 10 months after becoming unemployed before they applied for relief.

Usually relief came in the form of vouchers rather than cash. The vouchers could be exchanged for food or other goods at certain stores. Merchandise bought by voucher was seldom wrapped. Merchants did not feel obliged to wrap shoes or clothing when the customer was in no position to complain about it.

In many cases, relief provided barely enough to live on. Payments were kept low to discourage people from applying for them. In 1932, relief for a family of five in Montreal was \$4.58 a week. In Vancouver,

family relief was \$5.75. In Newfoundland, it was 42¢ a week. The chart showing typical prices in 1932 gives you an idea of just how little relief payments could buy.

As times became more difficult, people began to blame Bennett for their problems. Cars that could not run for lack of gas were hitched up to farm animals and called "Bennett buggies." The shacks where the unemployed camped around cities were called "Bennett boroughs." "Bennett coffee," made from roasted wheat or barley, was a cheap substitute for the real thing. Newspapers used as covers by homeless people on park benches were known as "Bennett blankets." A "Bennett barnyard" was an abandoned farm. The following testimonies express some of the hardships people faced.

Did you have a job during the Depression?

No, but my brothers in Kingston worked for 15¢ a day by driving tractors. I was on relief. They gave us prunes [to eat] and a pair of boots once a year. We got pants but no suits—just salvage, surplus clothes. I once asked Mayor Kaiser for food but he said no. That guy [the mayor] had butter on his table. Everyone else had fatty, lardy margarine. To get my relief, I killed rats in the dump on Gibb Street and dug sewers and ditches.

What was life like for you during the Depression? Did your husband have a job?

I remember my husband was very sick for the first few years of the Depression. He worked for a farmer and got \$19 a month. We had to try to get by on it, but if his parents hadn't helped us, I don't know what we would have done. The doctor in Beaverton was really good and I remember he operated on my husband right on our kitchen table. He was really

sick for a while there, but the doctor had us pay him only \$100. We owed him well over \$500, but he told us he would wipe his books clean of what we owed him.

Where did you get your clothes?

Mother made all the clothes for us from old clothes that had been given to us. I remember she knitted wool stockings because it was so cold. Mother's relatives would send us old clothes and many of these had moth holes in them. I was embarrassed to wear the old clothes. It seemed mine were the worst of all the kids in the school.

How did you feel about the railroad riders?

A lot of them came to our place asking for food. We gave them meals, but we made sure they washed first because they were all so dirty. We couldn't turn away these hobos since we had something to eat ourselves.

How did your family make a living? What was life like for you during the Depression?

All during the twenties my father was a bricklayer in Toronto, but by the mid-1930s he no longer had a job... My parents figured that the only solution was to go and live on a farm where we could get enough to eat. As a result, my family sold our home in Toronto and moved to a farm near Ashburn, Ontario, in the fall of 1930. There was an apple orchard and we raised various farm animals such as cows, chickens, and pigs. To earn money for our family, my parents travelled to Toronto in their old Durant [a make of car] and sold the farm goods there. We only had the car for a few years because it broke down and we could not afford to have it repaired. My parents went from house to house trying to sell apples and eggs. They did not make much money selling their farm produce because few people would buy, or could afford to buy, the goods.

The reason people wouldn't admit poverty was because they were too proud. I remember people brought coal sacks uptown to get relief. It was very humiliating for people to be seen with these. Not everyone got relief though, because there wasn't enough to go around.

An Aboriginal elder, Ike Hill, recalled: Oh, I remember them days, them dirty thirties. But the missus and I managed to keep the kids fed. That was the thing having a farm. You could always have the seeds and grow your food, and we used to do the hunting or the trapping so we'd have meat. But them folks up there in the city, they didn't have [anything]. Well, neither did we, but we [were] used to not having anything.

⊗ Effects on **≧** Canada's Regions

People in all parts of Canada suffered as the worldwide depression tightened its grip. But western Canada was especially hard hit. Between 1929 and 1933, income per person declined in Saskatchewan by 72 per cent and in Alberta by 61 per cent. In Manitoba, the decline was 49 per cent.

Why was the West hit so hard? The economy of the West was largely dependent upon wheat. A severe drought and plagues of grasshoppers destroyed crops in the 1930s. But the biggest problem faced by western farmers was not too little, but too much wheat. Worldwide, there was a glut of grain on the market that no one could afford to buy. Wheat prices crashed from \$1.60 a bushel in 1929 to 38¢ a bushel in 1932.





IMPACT ON SOCIETY

LETTERS FROM THE DEPRESSION

During the Depression, many people wrote letters to Prime Minister Bennett asking for help. Bennett was a multimillionaire from Calgary who did not like the idea of giving out government relief, but he nevertheless personally tried to help many people in need. The letters on these pages express some of the shame and despair people felt.

Ottawa March the 4th 1932

I am just writing a few lines to you to see what can be done for us young men of Canada. We are the growing generation of Canada, but with no hopes of a future. Please tell me why is it a single man always gets a refusal when he looks for a job. A married man gets work, & if he does not get work, he gets relief. Yesterday I got a glimpse of a lot of the unemployed. It just made me feel downhearted, to think there is no work for them, or in the future, & also no work for myself. Last year I was out of work three months. I received work with a local farm. I was told in the fall I could have the job for the winter; I was then a stable man. Now I am slacked off on account of no snow this winter. Now I am wandering the streets like a beggar, with no future ahead. There are lots of single men in Ottawa, who would rather walk the streets, & starve, than work on a farm. That is a true statement, Myself I work wherever I can get work, & get a good name wherever I go. There are plenty of young men like myself, who are in the same plight. I say again whats to be done for us single men? do we have to starve? or do we have to go round with our faces full of shame, to beg at the doors of the well to do citizen. I suppose you will say the married men come first; I certainly agree with you there. But have you a word or two to cheer us single men up a bit? The married man got word he was going to get relief. That took the weight of worry off his mind quite a bit. Did the single man here anything, how he was going to pull through? Did you ever feel the pangs of hunger? My idea is we shall all starve. I suppose you will say I cant help it, or I cant make things better. You have the power to make things better or worse. When you entered as Premier you promised a lot of things, you was going to do for the country. I am waiting patiently to see the results. Will look for my answer in the paper.

Yours Truly R.D. Ottawa May 30/31

Mr. Bennette

Since you have been elected, work has been impossible to get. We have decided that in a month from this date, if thing's are the same, We'll skin you alive, the first chance we get.

Sudbury Starving Unemployed

> Passman, Sask. 16 Oct. 1933 Dear Sir.

I am a girl thirteen years old and I have to go to school every day its very cold now already and I haven't got a coat to put on. My parents can't afford to buy me anything for this winter. I have to walk to school four and a half mile every morning and night and I'm awfully cold every day. Would you be so kind to sent me enough money so that I could get one.

My name is Edwina Abbott [Reply: \$5.00] Craven, Alberta Feb 111935

Dear Sir.

Please don't think I'm crazy for writing you this letter, but I've got three little children, and they are all in need of shoes as well as underwear but shoe's are the most needed as two of them go to school and its cold, my husband has not had a crop for 8 years only enough for seed and some food, and I don't know what to do. I hate to ask for help. I never have before and we are staying off relief if possible. What I wanted was \$3.00 if I could possible get it or even some old cloths to make over but if you don't want to do this please don't mention it over radios as every one knows me around here and I'm well liked, so I beg of you not to mention my name. I've never asked anyone around here for help or cloths as I know them to well.

Yours Sincerly Mrs. P.E. Bottle [Reply: \$5.00] Murray Harbour, P.E.I. March 24 1935

Premier Bennett:

Dear Sir:

I am writing you to see if their is any help I could get. As I have a baby thirteen days old that only weighs One Pound and I have to keep it in Cotton Wool & Olive Oil, and I havent the money to buy it, the people bought it so far and fed me when I was in Bed. if their is any help I could get I would like to get it as soon as possible. their is five of a family, Counting the baby. their will be two votes for you next Election Hoping too hear from you soon

Yours Truly. Mrs. Jack O'Hannon

[Reply: \$5.00]

- 1. These letters contain some grammatical and spelling errors. Suggest why.
- 2. Who are the authors of the letters? What does your answer suggest about the types of people who were most affected by the Depression?
- 3. a) What kinds of problems did people write about to Prime Minister Bennett?
 - b) What emotions are expressed in the letters?
 - c) What solutions were available to solve the problems? What did Prime Minister Bennett do?
- 4. What were the special problems faced by the number of young single men? Was it right that married men got work or relief while single men did not? Why did the government give special preference to married men?
- 5. Why would a woman who wrote to Bennett beg him not to mention her name?
- 6. What help would be available today for a woman who gave birth to a one pound (450 gram) baby? What help was available to her in 1935? Do you think it was the duty of the government to help her? Why?
- 7. Imagine you were living through the Depression. Write your own letter to Prime Minister Bennett.

As agricultural income dropped in the West, other regions of the country were affected as well. Factories in Central Canada that produced farm machinery, for example, had to cut back production and lay off workers. Imagine the effect this drop in tractor sales would have:

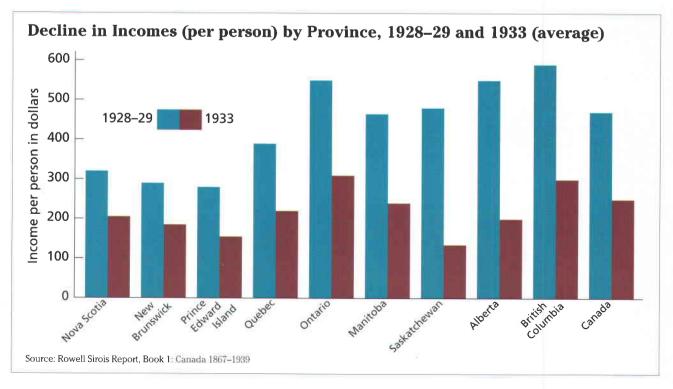
1928 17 000 tractors sold in Canada 1932 892 tractors sold in Canada

In Central Canada, small businesses and those that depended on world markets were hardest hit. Companies that produced goods for sale in Canada fared a little better. Some survived by drastically cutting back workers and wages. Large corporations had the best chance of riding out the Depression because they had the most resources to fall back on. In Canada, major corporations still recorded profits in all but one year during the Depression. Many workers suffered, however, from the wage cutbacks and increased workloads. Many farmers also could not pay their mortgages and lost

their land. Those that survived grew enough for their families to eat and sold a little to cover expenses.

The Maritimes had not benefited as much from the boom of the late 1920s. and so the economic decline did not seem so severe there. But conditions were difficult nonetheless. The Maritime Provinces depended on exports of fish, timber products, and coal. When markets for these products declined, the Maritime Provinces suffered. Workers in fish processing plants were laid off, or their work hours were reduced. Some had their wages cut. For the thousands of fishers. there was no point in going out to sea. Farmers also saw their incomes drop, but not as much as the incomes of prairie farmers. Farmers in the Maritimes grew a wider variety of products, and many were able to grow enough to survive. Not as many farmers were forced to abandon their land in the Maritimes as on the Prairies.

Which areas of Canada suffered most during the Depression?



In Newfoundland conditions were desperate. Newfoundland was not yet part of Canada. It was an independent dominion within the British Commonwealth. During the Depression the government went deeply into debt and could borrow no more. The economy almost collapsed. A British commission took over the government to help Newfoundland through the worst period.



Faced with a daily struggle to survive and little hope for the near future, many people looked for a way to forget their hardships. The 1930s were the "golden age" of Hollywood. For the price of a 25¢ ticket, people could forget the dust storms and relief vouchers and enter the make-believe world of the Hollywood stars. The films, radio shows, songs, and magazines of those days provided a brief escape from reality.

Great film extravaganzas such as "Gone With the Wind" and Walt Disney's "Mickey Mouse" were popular box office attractions. Though all the films came from Hollywood, at least a dozen stars were Canadians. These included Beatrice Lillie, Marie Dressler, Norma Shearer, Deanna Durbin, Raymond Massey, and Walter Huston.

The radio, which had become a common form of home entertainment in the 1920s, also provided a vital escape from the dreariness of ordinary life. The most popular radio shows came from the United States. They included "Jack Benny," "George Burns and Gracie Allen," "The Lone Ranger," and "The Inner Sanctum."

Protecting Canadian Culture

Because Canadian airwaves were being filled with American radio shows, Prime

Minister Bennett felt something had to be done. In 1928 a royal commission was set up to look into the broadcasting situation in Canada. The commission was headed by a Canadian banker, Sir John Aird. In 1929, the Aird Report showed that most radio programs came from outside Canada and that advertising was becoming hard-hitting. Also, since Canada's radio stations were concentrated in urban centres. large parts of the country were not receiving the benefits of radio broadcasting. To solve these problems, the commission recommended that a national, governmentowned company should own and operate all radio stations in Canada.

In 1933, the government created the Canadian Radio Broadcasting Commission (CRBC). It was meant to counteract American domination of the airwaves and to encourage the development of Canadian programs. The government built more stations across the country to improve the quality and coverage of Canadian broadcasting. In 1936, the commission became the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation (CBC). In 1939, the CBC covered the royal tour to Canada by the new king, George VI, and Oueen Elizabeth. The first visit of a reigning monarch to Canada was carried by radio to even the most remote areas. The CBC was proving that it could be a



Canadian Nell Shipman was one of the writers and stars of films in the 1930s. powerful force in establishing a sense of national unity across Canada.

The National Film Board (NFB) was also established in 1939. Its goal was "to promote the production and distribution of films in the nation and in particular . . . to interpret Canada and Canadians to other countries." The government felt Canada needed its own film production company to counter the influence of Hollywood. The first commissioner of the NFB, John Grierson, was a pioneer documentary filmmaker. His early influence helped to make Canada a world leader in the production of documentary films. In 1941 the famous animator, Norman McLaren, joined the NFB. McLaren's work contributed to the NFB's reputation for producing superb animation films. Over its long history, the NFB has gained worldwide recognition for its film work and contribution to Canadian culture.

To promote Canadian writing, the **Governor General's Awards** were established in 1937. Pressure from the Canadian Authors' Association persuaded Governor General John Buchan (himself a famous Scottish novelist) to create the awards. At first, the awards were given only for literature in English. This was changed in 1959 to include works in French. Until the 1980s, when other literary awards were created, the GGs were the most prestigious literary prizes in Canada.

Over time, Canadians have debated the effects of these cultural organizations. On the one hand, people argue that they protect Canadian arts from American domination and foster the development of Canadian talent. On the other hand, some people say that government protection has hindered the arts by sheltering them from the richness of outside creative influences. Other critics claim that government funds have not been distributed equally to all groups in Canadian society.



By 1935, Prime Minister R. B. Bennett knew that Canadians were growing increasingly angry with the government over the economy. The Depression was dragging on and conditions were getting no better. The government seemed to be doing nothing. In 1935, just before an election, Bennett introduced radical reforms. He wanted to establish unemployment and social insurance, set minimum wages, limit the hours of work, guarantee the fair treatment of employees, and control prices so that businesses could not make unfair profits.

The people called this **Bennett's** "New Deal." The program was similar to one introduced in the United States by President Roosevelt. Roosevelt's idea was to use all the government's resources to get the economy going. Large-scale federal public works projects such as road building were funded to provide jobs.

Most people were startled by Bennett's radical new ideas. His political opponents suggested that the New Deal was nothing more than a plot to win votes in the forthcoming election. They felt that Bennett had left his reforms too late to do any good. In the election of 1935, King and the Liberals swept back to power in a landslide victory.

People were also dissatisfied with provincial governments throughout the Depression. Like the federal government, they seemed to have no effective schemes for dealing with the economic and social problems. In many cases, the provinces simply pushed for more money from the federal government to deal with the problems. Some provinces such as Ontario passed laws to raise wage rates, but these measures had no real effect on the massive economic problems.

New Political Parties

Neither the federal nor the provincial governments seemed to have fresh ideas for solving the country's economic troubles. People were frustrated and fed up by the lack of leadership. Protest parties sprang up in various regions of the country, especially in the regions hardest hit by the Depression. Often in tough economic times, new regional political movements have appeared in Canada. In the 1930s, people were looking for strong local leaders who understood the problems they faced in their own region. They also wanted dramatic action to deal with the problems of the Depression.

Social Credit

One new regional party was **Social Credit**. In 1935 the Social Credit party swept to power as the government of Alberta. Its leader was William Aberhart, a school principal who had a reputation as a solid and responsible citizen. Aberhart was also a deeply religious man who was well known in Alberta as a popular radio preacher. In 1932, Aberhart vigorously attacked what he called the "Fifty Big Shots." These were leading bankers and industrialists whom Aberhart accused of ruling Canada. In part, Social Credit was a movement of regional protest—the West against Central Canada.

The theory of social credit was based on the writings of Major C. H. Douglas. According to Douglas, the basic problem of the economy was that people did not have enough money to spend on the goods that were being produced. Douglas suggested a simple solution. Every citizen should be given a "social credit" or cash payment. With this extra cash, people would spend more and the economy would improve.

Aberhart embraced the theories of Douglas. He promised to give a "social credit" of \$25 per month to every adult in Alberta. To farmers whose fields were blowing away and whose cattle were dying of thirst, this money seemed like a windfall. Aberhart wanted people to spend the extra cash so that businesses would have to increase production. Eventually the economy would recover and the Depression would end.

Aberhart's prosperity certificates were often called "funny money" because they were declared illegal by the courts and were never paid out. The Social Credit party remained in power in Alberta for 35 years. Social Credit also came to power in British Columbia in 1952. Eventually, it became a federal party and won some seats in Alberta and Quebec in a number of federal elections. Social Credit was a political presence in Quebec (where it was known as the *Ralliement des Creditistes*) from 1961 through the 1970s.

Co-operative Commonwealth Federation (CCF)

Another new political party was the Co-operative Commonwealth Federation. The CCF was formed in 1932 by farmers, labour groups, university teachers, and a few Members of Parliament. Its founders wanted social and economic reforms to end the human suffering caused by the Great Depression. Each word in the party's name explained part of what the party stood for. "Co-operative" stood for the farmers' belief in joint action. "Commonwealth" represented the hope for a new social order in which wealth would be shared more equally. "Federation" meant that the party was made up of a loose collection of various economic and social groups.

The party's first leader was James S. Woodsworth, the passionate social reformer and labour leader. Woodsworth



James Woodsworth
was the first leader of
the Co-operative
Commonwealth
Federation (CCF)
political party.

had been arrested for his involvement in the Winnipeg General Strike in 1919. Later. he was elected as a Member of Parliament from Manitoba. In 1933, the CCF set out its policies in a document called the Regina Manifesto. The Manifesto called for the public ownership of banks and major services such as transportation and electric power. It demanded improved health and social welfare services. It strongly called for more government support of agriculture and conservation. To meet the existing economic emergency, it suggested an immediate start on slum clearance and the extension of electricity services to rural areas. These projects would provide jobs and be of permanent benefit to Canadians.

The CCF was a democratic socialist party. Socialists believe that government should own and control the means of production. The CCF stood for more government control of the economy. But the Regina Manifesto specifically rejected revolution and stated that it intended to bring about changes by free elections and the parliamentary system.

Members of the CCF were often accused of being communists by their opponents. But they differed from communists in Russia or China because they rejected armed revolution. The CCF wanted to bring change through election to government. The party made slow headway in the early years. Meanwhile, Mackenzie King and the Liberals quietly adopted some CCF ideas. The new party did gain some seats in provincial elections in British Columbia and Saskatchewan in 1933-34. In the 1940s, the CCF attracted some support in Ontario. In 1944, it came to power in Saskatchewan.

Over the years, both Liberals and Conservatives adopted policies first proposed by the CCF. These included welfare insurance, family allowances, unemployment insurance, and compensation for injured workers. By 1961, the CCF reorganized itself under a new name, the New Democratic Party. Today the New Democratic Party is still active in Canadian political life, in both federal and provincial governments.

It was during the Depression that the idea of the welfare state took root in Canada. This was the belief that society should support its citizens to prevent extreme economic hardships. Today, there is unemployment insurance so that no one suffers severe hardship because a job is not available. People over 65 years of age are provided with pensions and injured workers receive compensation. But in the 1930s, these reforms had not yet taken hold and political solutions were not enough to end the Depression. The Depression was ended by World War II. The outbreak of war in 1939 provided jobs for many in the

armed forces and in the factories producing war munitions.

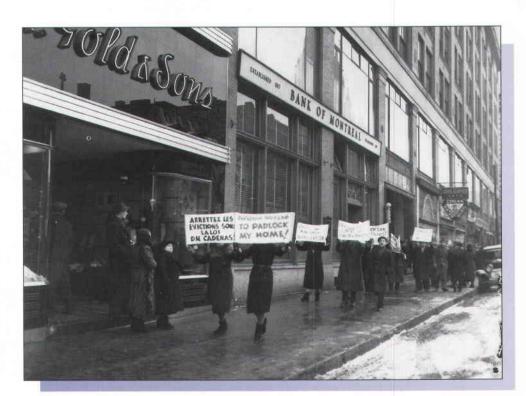
Union Nationale

Quebec society had changed in the 1920s. More people left farms to work in the large hydroelectric, mining, and pulp and paper industries. By 1921, for the first time, more Quebeckers were living in towns and cities than on the farms. Quebec was gradually becoming industrialized. But the province's natural resources, industries, and finances were largely in the hands of English-speaking business owners.

When the Depression hit, economic problems in the province reached a crisis. By 1933, 30 per cent of Montreal's workforce was unemployed. The economic and social grievances felt by many French Canadians led to the formation of a new political party, the **Union Nationale**. The party leader was a lawyer, Maurice Duplessis. Duplessis claimed the English-

speaking minority and the federal government were the cause of Quebec's economic and social problems. He vowed to defend the French language, Roman Catholic religion, and culture against English-speaking businesspeople, the federal government, and communists. He was determined to secure more provincial power for Quebec so that it could follow its own economic policies. The Union Nationale promised to improve working conditions, find new markets for farm products, and build affordable housing.

In 1936, Duplessis and the Union Nationale swept to power in the provincial election. From then on, except during World War II, Duplessis dominated Quebec politics until his death in 1959. But once in power, the Union Nationale changed direction. Duplessis' government passed anti-strike laws to put down labour unions. Foreign investors continued to be attracted to Quebec for its bountiful nat-



A protest against Duplessis's Padlock Law in Quebec. ural resources and large workforce. In 1937, the government passed the Padlock Law. It gave the Duplessis government the right to padlock the premises of any "subversive" organizations. The law was apparently aimed at communists, but in fact went further. Labour unions, Jewish people, and Jehovah Witnesses were also targeted. Despite these measures, Duplessis remained popular with many Quebeckers. They admired his nationalism.



🕒 🞁 Immigration

Over the years, Canada has had a kind of "tap-on, tap-off" approach to immigration. In good times, the government opens the tap to admit more immigrants. In bad economic times, the tap is closed to slow down the flow. That is exactly what happened during the Great Depression. The federal government grew tired of being blamed by the provinces for causing further unemployment by bringing in immigrants who could not find work. Feelings of xenophobia, which arose in the 1920s, seemed to become even stronger during the Depression. One Toronto suburban newspaper wrote: "The taxpayers have enough to do to look after their needy citizens and should be protected against foreigners coming here to seek relief-Deport them at once!" Once again, Ottawa responded to public pressures.

The government began to deport (send back to their home countries) any "foreigners" who were seen as "troublemakers" or suspected of being communists. The government was still nervous that workers were planning a revolution to overthrow the government. Not all Canadians were hostile to immigrants, but during the Depression it seemed that Canada had nothing left over to give newcomers. Sometimes just applying for relief before they had been in the country for five years was enough to get an immigrant deported. There was no trial, and they had no lawyer or jury to hear their case. The immigrants were hustled to an Atlantic port, usually Halifax, and put on ships bound for Europe. One Manitoba politician said: "In our town (Winnipeg), when those foreigners from across the tracks apply for relief, we just show them a blank application for voluntary deportation. Believe me. they don't come back. It's simple, but it has saved the city a lot of money."

The government changed the immigration law "to prevent persons coming into the country who will not be able to find work" and "who could become a burden on the people of Canada." In effect, the law still discriminated against people who were not either British or Americans. Immigration dropped from 1 666 000 in the decade 1921-1931 to only 140 000 in the years 1931-1941. In 1913, the peak year for immigration, Canada had received more than 400 000 new people. At the height of the Depression in 1935, immigration had slowed to a trickle of 11 000. Canada also shut its doors to Jewish people attempting to escape persecution in Nazi Europe. You will read more about Canada's response to Jewish refugees in the next chapter. This action would come back to haunt Canadians after World War II.



Developing Skills: Interpreting Graphs in History

Newspapers, magazines, and atlases frequently present information using graphs. A graph can make information clear that would take many words to explain. Graphs are visual pictures or summaries of key information. You are probably already familiar with various types of graphs, such as bar, pie, and pictographs from your math, science, and geography classes. Graphs are useful in history too. Each type of graph is especially useful for presenting a particular kind of information.

Line graphs are useful when you want to see how something changes under certain measurable conditions, such as over time. Line graphs are also useful to show the development of similar items, so that you can compare them. In the line graph on page 204, for instance, you can see how the number of unemployed and the number of people on direct relief changed over a period of time. The line graph also makes it easy to compare the two.

Step 1

Read the title of the graph to find out exactly what information is being presented. The line graph on page 204, for example, illustrates the number of people unemployed and the number on direct relief over several years—from 1926-1940. From what you have learned in this chapter, you know that these years cover the Great Depression.

Step 2

Check the legend. A legend tells what the lines, colours, symbols, or other elements in a graph mean or represent. In this graph, the blue line shows the number of unemployed and the yellow shows the number on direct relief.

Step 3

Read the numbers along the bottom of the graph. In this graph, they tell you the years being reported. The numbers along the side of the graph represent the number of people and are shown in thousands. The numbers go from zero at the bottom to 800 000 at the top.

Step 4

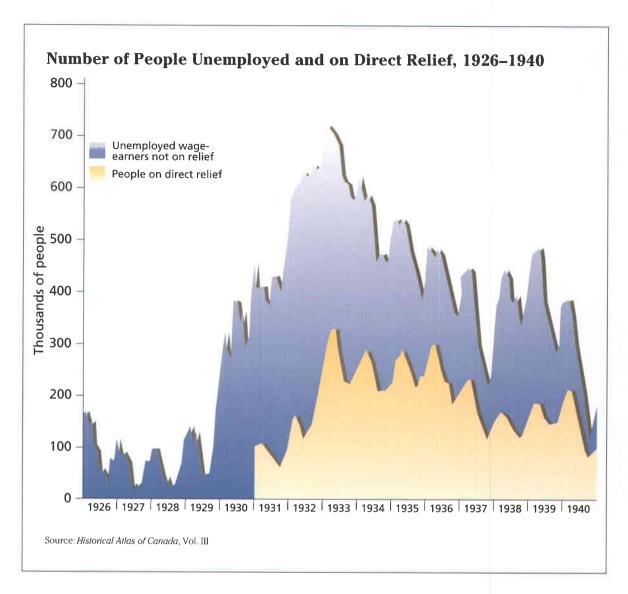
Study the graph. What can it tell you? What conclusions can you draw? Consider the following questions:

- a) When was unemployment at its highest level? When was unemployment at its lowest level?
- b) What were the rates of unemployment at the end of the 1920s in Canada? What happened to the rate of unemployment after the stock market crashed?
- c) In which year did direct relief begin?
- d) Which number is always larger, the number of people on direct relief or the number of unemployed?
- e) Hypothesize. From the information you have read in this chapter and found on this graph, suggest some reasons for your answer in d).

Total Production (Gross National Product) in Canada, 1926-1939

Year	Total Production (billions of dollars)	
1926	5.1	
1927	5.6	
1928	6.1	
1929	6.1	
1930	5.7	
1931	4.7	
1932	3.8	
1933	3.5	
1934	4.0	
1935	4.3	
1936	4.6	
1937	5.2	
1938	5.3	
1939	5.6	

Source: Statistics Canada, Cat. 13-531, 13-201.



Practise It Further!

Use the data in the table on the previous page to construct a line graph. Gross National Product or GNP represents the total value of all goods and services produced in Canada in a year. When you have completed your graph, answer these questions.

- a) What pattern or trend does the graph show in Canada's total production from 1926 to 1939?
- b) In which year was total production lowest? What can you note about the number of unemployed in this year from the graph above?

- 10. Imagine you are a family of five on relief in 1932. You are given \$6.93 a week. Suppose you can spend \$4.00 of that on food. Refer to the list of typical prices for food items on page 192. Buy food for a week from this list with your \$4.00. Are you able to buy enough food to feed your family?
- 11. In groups of three or four, prepare and present a role play for one of the following. The time is the 1930s, at the height of the Great Depression.
 - a) a family discussing the fact that they must go on relief
 - b) people in a boxcar riding the rails in search of work
 - c) a group of young mothers gathered together to write a letter to Prime Minister Bennett
 - d) a group of single men in a relief camp
 - e) western farmers and workers at a meeting for the new Co-operative Commonwealth Federation
 - f) a group of wealthy business owners discussing the economic situation
- 12. Compare economic conditions in the 1920s and 1930s. Complete a comparison organizer like the following. You could also do further research and create a bulletin board display including graphs, charts, and photographs to illustrate your comparisons.

Economic Conditions	1920s	1930s	Reasons
Growth of industries			
Farm production			
Amount of unemployment			
People's ability to buy goods			
Amount of world trade			

- 13. Write a human-interest story based on a photograph in this unit or create an illustration of your own to describe your feelings about the Depression.
- 14. Do some research to gather information on how the rich lived in Canada during the 1930s. Include facts on automobiles, holidays, clothing styles, etc. Write a report or create a bulletin board display on "How the Other Half Lived."

Apply Your Knowledge

15. Imagine that your family's income dropped suddenly because the wage earner was unemployed. Make a list of the possessions you would sell to raise money. Rank the items in order from those you would be most willing to sell to those you would be least willing to sell. How do you think your situation would compare with a family in the 1930s?



Understand Facts and Concepts

1. Add these new terms to your Factfile.

Great Depression business cycle Black Tuesday

staples Bennett Buggy

relief

"five-cent piece" speech

On-to-Ottawa Trek

Canadian Radio Broadcasting

Commission (CRBC)

Canadian Broadcasting Corporation

(CBC)

National Film Board (NFB) Governor General's Awards

Bennett's New Deal Social Credit

Co-operative Commonwealth Federation

(CCF)

Union Nationale

- 2. a) Explain how overproduction led to factory slowdowns in the 1930s.
 - b) Why did Canadian families stop buying as many products?
- 3. a) Why do countries put high tariffs on foreign goods? Who benefits from high tariffs? Who suffers?
 - b) Why was international trade important to Canada in the 1920s and 1930s?
- 4. Which regions of Canada were hardest hit by the Depression? Provide evidence for your answers.
- 5. a) Why were relief vouchers for food and rent given out during the Depression instead of cash?
 - b) Do you think vouchers were a good or bad idea? Why?
- 6. a) What measures did R. B. Bennett take to combat the Depression?
 - b) How effective were these measures?
 - c) What would you suggest Bennett could have done to reduce the horrible effects of poverty and unemployment?

Think and Communicate

- 7. Create a mind map outlining the major causes of the Depression. Remember that a mind map shows connections between ideas and their importance in relation to one another.
- 8. Analyze the cartoon on page 187. Refer back to the "Developing Skills" section on page 49 for key questions to guide you.
- 9. Search out other photographs of life during the 1930s. Organize and display the photographs with captions to create your own photo essay on life during the Depression.

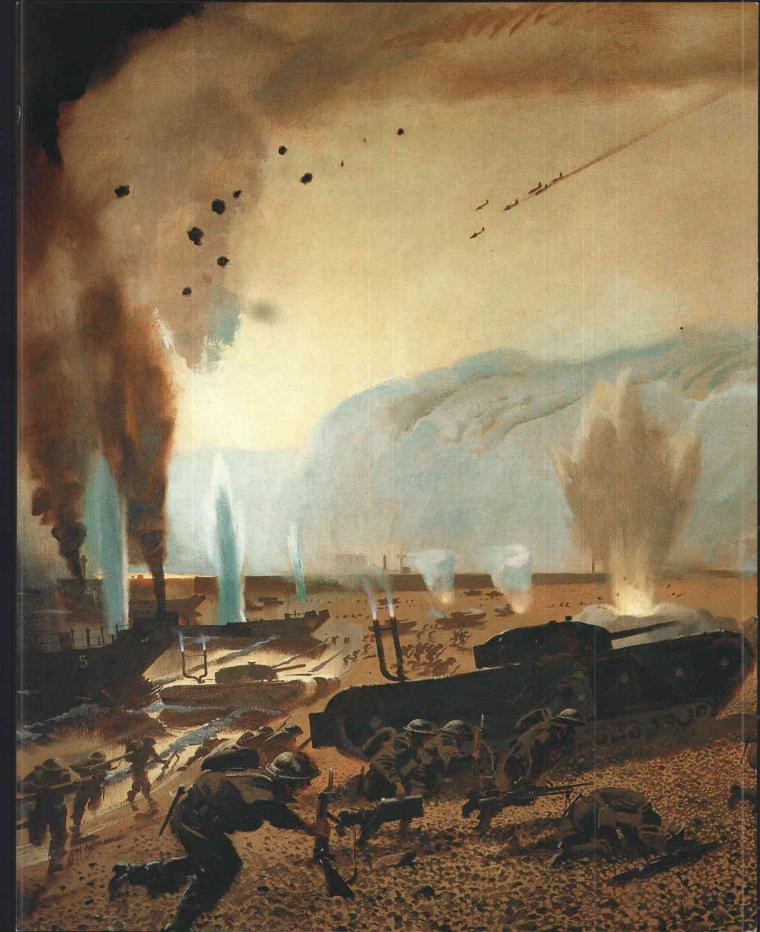
- 16. Debate one of the following statements.
 - a) Any person who is unemployed and receiving relief should be required to work at some project, such as sweeping the streets, to earn the relief money.
 - b) The government is expected to provide too many services for Canadians today. People should not expect the government to look after them from the cradle to the grave. People should care for themselves.
 - c) Kids today have got it too easy. If they had lived through the Depression, they would have known hard times but would be better for it.
- 17. a) The jobless rate in Canada fluctuates from year to year and from region to region. Do some research to discover how many people are unemployed in Canada today. Compare this number with the jobless rate in Canada during the Great Depression.
 - b) What are the causes of unemployment today? Which regions suffer most? Is there a difference between the unemployment problem today and the one during the Depression?
 - c) What measures are taken to deal with unemployment today?

Get to the Source

18. A famous author, Caroline Bird, said that everybody who lived through the Depression carried a permanent invisible scar on their minds. What she meant is illustrated in the comment of a teenager who lived through the Depression:

I would never again like to live through a depression. It makes a person want to cry remembering how horrible life was back then. My parents had to work so hard and they suffered a great deal. Me, I never buy a thing on credit. I always wait until I can afford to pay for everything in cash. We hang on to our money because in 1929 everyone was in the stock market and everybody lost. I want to have some money to put away for a rainy day.

- a) Do you think all survivors of the Depression would feel the same way? Why or why not?
- b) Would their children and grandchildren feel the same? Explain your views.





CANADA AND WORLD WAR II

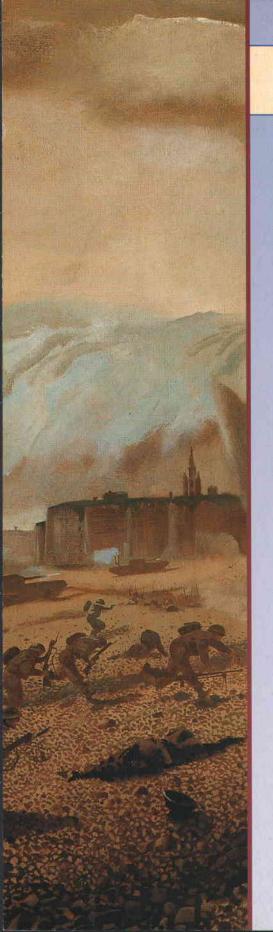
1939-1945

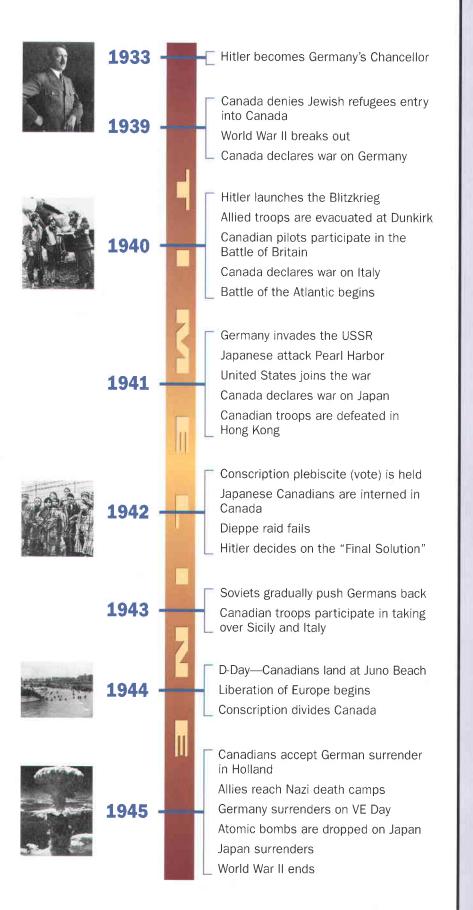
orld War I ended in 1918. Just 20 years later, the world was plunged into another massive war. In some ways, the peace in 1918 sowed the seeds of World War II. The German people were humiliated by the peace treaty. They turned to the fascist dictator, Adolf Hitler. Hitler launched a campaign to expand Germany's control over all of Europe and establish the domination of a "master race."

In September 1939, Britain and France declared war on Germany. One week later, Canada declared war. Canada's response to the war was cautious at first, but soon developed into complete participation. The armed forces made major contributions to Allied victories. Over 1 million Canadians served in the war. Forty-five thousand gave their lives.

World War II transformed the country. The Canadian economy developed a stronger industrial base. Canada's political and economic ties with the United States became closer. Japanese, Italian, and other people suspected of sympathizing with the enemy were placed in internment camps. But the full horror of the Nazi death camps, in which more than 6 million Jews and millions of other "political prisoners" were murdered, brought a new awareness of human rights issues. Canada emerged from the war with a new commitment to world peace and a growing concern for human rights.

- War artists were not always there at the exact moment of a battle. Their paintings often contain both facts and the artist's impressions. This painting, by Charles Comfort, shows Canadian forces during the raid on Dieppe in 1942.
 - a) Describe the landscape.
 - b) Why might it be difficult to stage an attack on this terrain?
- 2. Why might paintings like this one be valuable records?





Strands & Topics

Communities: Local. National, and Global



Canadian Identity

- many different ethnocultural and racial communities make contributions to the war effort at home and overseas
- · war artists and writers record Canadian experiences during the war
- · Canada emerges from the war with new confidence and international recognition



External Forces Shaping Canada's Policies

- · small fascist parties and anti-Semitism have an influence in Canada before the war
- Hitler's aggression in Europe leads Canada to declare war on Germany
- · Canada supports Britain in the war effort
- Canada develops closer political and economic ties with the United States



French-English Relations

· conscription creates tensions, as it did in World War I



War, Peace, and Security

- Canada has an isolationist foreign policy and closes its doors to Jewish refugees in the 1930s
- · pacifists speak out against war
- Canada joins its allies, Britain and France, in the war against Hitler
- · Canadians make major contributions to the air war, naval convoys, the Italian campaign, D-Day, and the liberation of Europe and the death camps
- Canada's Chinese and Japanese elite commandos play an important role in the Pacific war

Change and Continuity



Population Patterns

· immigration is restricted and falls to low levels



Impact of Science and Technology

- war spawns inventions such as radar, missiles, and the atomic bomb
- Canadian scientists and uranium contribute to the Manhattan Project



Canada's International **Status and Foreign Policy**

- Canada supports appeasement before the war
- · Canada declares war as an autonomous nation
- Canada develops closer relations with the United States
- · Canada establishes itself as an important middle power
- · experience of the Holocaust leads to a growing awareness of human rights issues

Citizenship and Heritage



Social and Political Movements

- · many women join the armed forces and serve overseas
- · women expand their roles in the workforce
- · contributions of Chinese and Japanese Canadians supports their efforts to gain the vote



Contributions of Individuals

 Prime Minister Mackenzie King leads Canada through the war

- Canadian scientists such as Louis Slotin contribute to the Manhattan Project
- Canadian artists and writers such as Charles Comfort, Peggy McLeod, and Joy Kogawa record Canadian experiences
- · Canada has a number of war heroes including Tommy Prince and Henry Fung

Social, Economic, and **Political Structures**



The Economy

- war takes Canada out of the Depression and sparks an economic boom
- Canadian economy develops a stronger industrial base



The Changing Role of Government

- · government interns "enemy aliens" including a large number of Japanese people
- · rationing, wage and price controls are introduced
- · Wartime Information Board distributes propaganda
- government takes greater control over the economy
- · unemployment insurance and family allowances are introduced

Methods of Historical Inquiry



Skill Development

- using maps as visual organizers
- debating
- analyzing bias in propaganda

Activities

• pp. 228–230, 252–254, 274–275

Expectations

By the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- analyze the causes of World War II
- explain how and why Canada became involved in the war
- · evaluate Canada's contributions to the Allied victory
- recognize anti-Semitism and the horrors of the Holocaust, and analyze Canada's response to both
- appreciate the contributions of individual Canadians and of various ethnocultural and racial groups to the war effort at home and overseas
- · recognize how the issue of conscription divided French and English Canadians
- · evaluate the impact of technological developments made during the war
- assess the role of government during the war
- analyze Canada's changing relationship with the United States and Britain
- · evaluate the effects of the war on the women's movement
- describe the impact of the war on Canada's economy
- · practise effective debating skills
- use maps as visual organizers of information
- recognize and analyze bias in propaganda



On the Eve of War

A Wartime Diary

On 4 August 1944, Nazi soldiers burst into an attic over a warehouse in Amsterdam, Holland, An informer had told them that eight Jewish people were hiding there. The Nazis found the Frank family and four other Jews. They had hidden in these cramped quarters for two years. While searching the attic, the sergeant picked up Mr. Frank's briefcase and asked if there were any jewels in it. Mr. Frank said that it contained only papers. Disappointed, the Nazi soldier threw the papers onto the floor. The little group that had spent 25 months in that attic was sent off to concentration camps.

But there remained on the floor of the attic the diary of a 13-year-old girl, Anne Frank.

All the time she and her family were in hiding, Anne had been describing the isolation and constant fear in which they lived. In 1945, Anne died at the age of 15 in the Bergen-Belsen concentration camp. Canadian soldiers helped liberate the camp at the end of the war, but it was too late for Anne and thousands of other Jewish people who died in that concentration camp.

Anne Frank's diary was later discovered and published. It remains one of the most moving stories of a young Jewish girl and her will to survive the Nazi persecutions. The following two passages from her diary tell part of her ordeal.

20 June 1942

After May 1940 good times rapidly fled; first the war, then the surrender of Holland, followed by the arrival of the Germans, which is when the suffering of us Jews really began. Anti-Jewish decrees followed each other in quick succession. Jews must wear a yellow star, Jews must hand in their bicycles, Jews are banned from trains and are forbidden to drive. Jews are only allowed to do their shopping between 3 and 5 o'clock, and then only in shops that bear the placard 'Jewish shop.' Jews must be indoors by 8 o'clock and cannot even sit in their own gardens after that hour. Jews are forbidden to enter theatres, cinemas, and other places of entertainment. Jews may not take part in pub-

lic sports. Swimming baths, tennis courts, hockey fields and other sports grounds were also prohibited to them. Jews must go to Jewish school and many more restrictions of a similar kind.

9 October 1942

Our many Jewish friends are being taken away by the dozen. These people are treated by the SS [Nazi secret police] without a shred of decency, being loaded into cattle trucks and sent to Westerbork, the big Jewish camp. Westerbork sounds terrible: only one washing cubicle for a hundred people and not nearly enough lavatories ... It is impossible to escape; most of the people in the camp are branded by their shaved heads.... We assume that most of them are murdered. The English radio speaks of their being gassed.

- 1. Define "persecution." What forms of persecution against Jewish people does Anne Frank describe in her diary?
- 2. If you were Anne Frank in 1942, how would you react to these acts of persecution?



Norld War II

Anne Frank was just one of the 6 million Jews who died in the horrible concentration camps of Nazi Germany. Another 24 million soldiers and civilians from all sides—Canadian, British, French, Soviet, Dutch, German, Italian, Japanese, American, and others—brought the staggering loss to 30 million casualties in World War II. What caused the world to erupt into the second major conflict of this century? How did Canada become involved in yet another world war? What role did Canada and Canadians play?



Case Study: Germany After World War I

To analyze why World War II broke out, it helps to understand the conditions in Germany between 1918 and 1932. Why did the German people turn to the Nazi

leader, Adolf Hitler? Why were Jewish people, such as Anne Frank, so harshly treated? What was Canada's reaction? With the following case study, you can analyze key problems that contributed to the outbreak of the war.

1 The Treaty of Versailles

After World War I, leaders of the victorious countries gathered to sign the Treaty of Versailles. Some leaders, such as the American President Woodrow Wilson, felt the defeated countries should be treated with justice and honour so that they would not want to get revenge in the future. Others, including Prime Minister Lloyd George of Britain and Premier Georges Clemenceau of France, also wanted to avoid another war. But they became determined that Germany should pay for the damages done and the lives lost. They also wanted to ensure that Germany would remain weak and never wage another devastating war. In the end, the terms of the treaty placed heavy restrictions on Germany.

The people of Germany felt humiliated by the Treaty. They considered the loss of all their colonies, the loss of territory around their borders, and the reparation payments unjust. The war guilt clause was seen as a stain on the honour of all Germans. On the morning of the Treaty's signing, the *Deutsche Zeitung* (German News) called for vengeance.

Vengeance!

Today in Versailles the disgraceful Treaty is being signed. Do not forget it! The German people will, with unceasing labour, press forward to reconquer the place among the nations to which we are entitled! Then will come vengeance for the shame of 1919!

The huge reparation payments, loss of colonies, and loss of territory also made it difficult for the German economy to recover after the war.

1. Review the main terms of the Treaty of Versailles listed under A below. Decide which groups of people listed under B would be opposed to each term. Why?

A

- a) The French took rich prizes of German territory west of the Rhine—the Saar Valley with its coal fields and the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine.
- b) The German army was limited to 100 000. Germany could have no submarines, aircraft, or heavy artillery.
- c) Germany was required to pay \$5 billion in reparations.
- d) Germany's colonies were parceled out to France, Britain, and Japan.

e) Germany had to admit that it was totally to blame for all the losses and damages of the war (the War Guilt Clause).

В

- i) the military
- ii) big business owners
- iii) the middle class
- iv) working people
- v) all German people
- vi) nationalists

2 Economic Problems: Inflation

To finance the war, Germany had borrowed large sums of money. As a result, the country was burdened with a huge debt. To pay off the debt, the government began printing more money. But Germany's industries and businesses were not expanding. Instead of going into the economy, the printed money and all the country's wealth was going to pay off the debt and the heavy reparations. The rapid printing of marks (the basic unit of German money) was not supported by real economic value, and this caused severe inflation. Prices for goods and services rose astronomically.

In the spring of 1922, about 300 marks could buy an American dollar. By early 1923, it took 50 000 marks to buy an American dollar. Soon Germans needed billions of marks to pay for a postage stamp. It took a shopping bag full of marks to pay for the fare on a streetcar. Wages were often carried home in wheelbarrows full of almost worthless paper money. A lifetime's savings could become valueless in a matter of weeks.

- 1. What was the major economic problem Germany faced after the war and why did it arise?
- 2. How did the German government attempt to solve the economic crisis?
- 3. Who would suffer most from inflation? Why?



There were often long line-ups outside grocery stores in Germany in 1923. Prices had soared and many goods were scarce.

3 Depression and Unemployment

Just as the German economy was beginning to recover from the ravages of runaway inflation, another disaster struck. In the United States in 1929, the stock market crashed. This marked the beginning of the worldwide depression. Americans could no longer afford to buy German manufactured goods. American banks could no longer lend money to the German government and German businesses to rebuild after World War I. Many German businesses went bankrupt and people lost their jobs. Germany had very little money and could not make its reparation payments. The shock waves of the depression hit Germany full force.

Germans who still had jobs saw their scanty wages fall steadily from month to month. Unemployed miners spent the winter in unheated rooms. Sometimes, in desperation, they broke through fences at the mines to steal a few lumps of coal. In the woods around Berlin, families pitched tents or lived in packing crates. They couldn't afford to pay rents in the city. In the country, farmers stood with loaded

rifles to protect their crops and gardens. Starving people came from the city to try to scrounge food for their families. Many people were reduced to begging in the streets.

News item: Berlin 1932 Unemployment has now reached 6 million, half of Germany's labour force! People are deliberately seeking arrest in order to receive free food in prison.

Hitler saw his chance. To Germans who were bitter about inflation and economic troubles, Hitler and the Nazi party said:

Believe me, our misery will increase! The government itself is the biggest swindler and crook. People are starving on millions of marks! We will no longer submit! We want a dictatorship.

1. What did Hitler say was the cause of Germany's economic problems?

The German Chancellor Adolf Hitler.



- 2. a) What is a dictatorship?
 - b) What could Hitler promise the unemployed to win them over to the idea of a Nazi dictatorship?

4 Political Instability

With such serious economic crises facing the country, political leadership was critical to Germany's recovery. But the German political system was as badly wounded as the economy.

After World War I, Germany had more than a dozen major political parties. No party was strong enough to undertake the huge task of rebuilding a war-torn country. The main political parties fell into three general groups: Communists, Social Democrats, and National Socialists (Nazis). These groups shared little in common and bitterly opposed each other. In particular, the Communists and Nazis often fought battles in the streets. No party could win a majority government. Election campaigns were usually marked by intimidation and violence. As conditions in Germany worsened, more people were willing to listen to the extremist voices of the Nazi party, which stressed the following beliefs:

- government should be run by the army and the wealthy
- industry should be privately owned
- the power of the military should be increased
- democratic government should be outlawed
- activities of Jews and foreigners should be severely restricted (because the Nazis believed these two groups were responsible for Germany's economic problems)
- 1. How would the political and economic instability of the country work to Hitler's and the Nazi party's advantage?
- 2. Who (besides the government) did Hitler hold responsible for Germany's economic problems?

Hitler Comes to Power

In 1919, Adolf Hitler joined a small political group that was to become the Nazi party. Within a short time, he took over leadership of the party and began to shape it to reflect his own ideas.

Hitler promised the German people he would get back the land lost during World War I. He promised to restore Germany to world leadership. He pronounced that Aryans (Caucasians not of Jewish descent and, for Hilter, particularly people of pure German descent) were the "master race." He stated that Aryans deserved to rule the world. Based on this belief, Hitler promised to "deal" with the Jews. He blamed the Jewish people for Germany's defeat in World War I and for the economic hard times that followed.

Hitler was obsessed by hatred of Jews (anti-Semitism). In the early 1920s, he



A Nazi rally in
Nuremberg, 1937. The
swastika symbol is
prominent. The
colours of the flag
were red, white, and
black. Red was for
Socialism, white for
Nationalism, and
black the symbol for
the struggle of the
Aryan victory.

wrote a book called *Mein Kampf*, meaning "My Struggle." In *Mein Kampf*, Hitler's anti-Semitic views were there for the world to see. He described Jews as "deadly poison" and "vermin."

Hitler and the Nazi party gained control of the German Parliament in 1933. Hitler's rise to power meant the end of democracy in Germany Germans pledged absolute obedience to their leader, *der Führer*. Hitler became a **dictator**, outlawing all other political parties and using force to keep control. Anyone who opposed him was rounded up by secret police. Hitler had set up an armed force within the party called Stormtroopers or SA. They forcibly broke up meetings of other political parties. Opponents were thrown into prison or concentration camps.

Newspapers and radio were also strictly controlled by the Nazi party. The German people read and heard only what their leaders wanted them to read and hear. Books containing ideas that did not please Hitler were burned in huge public bonfires. Teachers were required to be members of the Nazi party. Students were recruited to join the Hitler Youth Movement, where they learned Nazi ideas. Priests and clergy who dared to protest Hitler's methods were thrown in prison. Nazi Germany became a totalitarian state in which everything was controlled by the government.

Hitler's Anti-Semitism

Once in power, Hitler and the Nazi party began the widespread persecution of the Jewish people. Jews were banned from all government jobs, as well as jobs in teaching, banking, broadcasting, newspapers, and entertainment. Jews were banned from many shops and public buildings. Nazis stood outside Jewish-owned stores and threatened customers who wanted to



IMPACT ON SOCIETY

CANADA AND FASCISM

In the late 1920s and 1930s, people in European countries were suffering from the worldwide depression and political turmoil. Some turned to fascist governments. **Fascism** first established a stronghold in Italy, and later in other European countries including Germany under the Nazi party.

Fascist states were military dictatorships. They were run by rulers who demanded absolute power and who crushed all rival political parties. When Mussolini established his fascist state in Italy after 1922, he ruthlessly put down all worker and social unrest, censored the press, and took complete control over the economy. Using his secret police and fear tactics, he rooted out all "enemies of the state." People were expected to conform (follow without question) to fascist ideas and pledge complete loyalty to the state. Like Hitler, Mussolini was fiercely nationalistic, believed in the superiority of his race, and was determined to restore Italy's power by aggressively taking over territory abroad.

Most Canadians paid little attention to the events in Europe in the early years of Hitler's and Mussolini's rise to power. But there were some admirers of Hitler and Mussolini in Canada. Several small fascist parties were formed in Canada during the 1930s. Like the fascists in Europe, they wore uniforms, trained in camps, and proclaimed racial purity. They were also aggressively anti-Jewish, anti-Black, and anti-Asian.

In Quebec, fascists organized under the leadership of Adrian Arcand and the National Unity Party. Arcand called his followers "blueshirts" and claimed they numbered in the thousands. He produced several newspapers that promoted the views of Hitler and ruthlessly attacked Jewish Canadians.

Other fascist parties emerged in other areas of the country. In eastern Canada, fascists took their lead from Joseph Farr, Ontario leader of the Canadian Nationalist Party. In the West, William



Arcand's "blueshirts" in Quebec were one of the fascist parties that formed in Canada during the 1930s.

Whittaker led the Western Fascists. In Toronto, a small group of fascists organized what was known as the Swastika Club. In 1933, a riot broke out in the Christie Pits area of the city between a group of Jewish and non-Jewish people after a swastika banner was raised at a baseball game.

Arcand dreamed of uniting all fascists into one national party and winning seats in elections. Canadian fascists organized a meeting to unite all parties in 1938. But at the same time, Hitler had seized Austria and began to threaten a future war. The Canadian government was suddenly acutely aware of the fascist threat. Authorities cracked down on fascist activities in Canada. Fascist party offices were raided and the parties were forbidden to run "training camps." When Hitler invaded Poland, Canadian fascist parties were made illegal and their leaders were interned under the War Measures Act.

Most historians agree that it is unlikely the majority of Canadians would have supported a Hitler-like movement. However, anti-Semitism clearly existed in Canada and some Canadians at the time shared the racist ideas of Arcand and his followers.

Anti-Fascism in Canada

Other Canadians decided to resist fascist ideas in Canada and abroad. A civil war in Spain broke out in 1936. The fascist General Franco was attempting to seize power in the country with support from Hitler and Mussolini. Over 1200 Canadians volunteered to go to Spain to fight fascism and defend democracy. Officially, the Canadian government's policy was non-intervention. In other words, the government did not want to get entangled in this distant war and risk dividing the country over another war. Prime Minister King's government passed a law making it illegal for Canadians to join a foreign army.

The Canadian volunteers formed their own unit, called the Mackenzie-Papineau Battalion or "Mac-Paps," and went to Spain. Among them was Dr. Norman Bethune, who developed a mobile blood transfusion unit that helped to save many lives. The Canadians fought in many key battles and over 600 were killed. Though they were unable to stop Franco, they signalled that not all people would stand by while dictatorship triumphed. When they returned, they were seen as heroes by many Canadians. After World War II broke out and the threat of fascism to democracy became shockingly clear to Canadians, mass rallies were held across Canada to protest fascist ideas.

- 1. Why might fascist ideas appeal to some Canadians in the 1930s?
- 2. Do you think a fascist party could ever come to power in Canada?

enter. Some Jewish businesses were vandalized. Many Jewish people had their property and businesses taken away.

In 1935, the **Nuremberg Laws** were passed. These laws took away the citizenship and civil rights of all Jews in Germany. It became illegal for a Jew to marry a non-Jew. By 1936, most Jews in Germany found it almost impossible to earn a living. They could not go to public schools, own land, associate with anyone who was a non-Jew, or go to a park, library, bank, or museum. Those who could escaped from Germany in this early period. Among them was the famous scientist, Albert Einstein.

Just before the war broke out, Hitler began a systematic rounding up of Jewish people, placing them in ghettos and concentration camps. Ghettos were areas of cities where Jews were forced to live. The German SS (secret police) could keep a close watch on them in these areas and prevent them from mixing with the rest of the German population. Concentration

camps were prison camps where Jews and all other political prisoners were forced into slave labour. Hitler's campaign to establish the "master race" led him to persecute not only Jews, but Blacks, Romany, those with mental disabilities, and others. All were thrown into the concentration camps.

In 1938, after a German embassy official in Paris was shot by a Polish-Jewish youth, the attack on German Jews became even more brutal. Seven thousand Jewish shops were looted and 20 000 Jews were arrested. Many were savagely beaten. This attack on the Jewish people became known as Kristallnacht (Night of "Broken" Glass). A huge fine was forced on the Jewish population. As the war went on, Hitler's attack on the Jewish people became even more shocking. However, it wasn't until after the war, when Allied troops moved into Germany, that the full horrors of the concentration camps became clear to the world. You will read more about these events in the next chapter.

An SA guard stands outside a Jewish shop marked by boycott posters.





Members of Toronto's Jewish community protest against restrictions on their rights. As life became more dangerous for Jewish people in the late 1930s, thousands attempted to flee from their European homelands. Many of these Jewish refugees had difficulty finding new homes. Countries were alarmed by the flood of



refugees, and many did not open their doors. Nearly 800 000 Jews desperately tried to escape Hitler's Germany from 1933 to 1939. Canada accepted fewer than 4000 Jewish immigrants before the outbreak of the war. The United States accepted 240 000 and Britain 85 000.

Why did Canada accept so few Jewish refugees at this time? Some Canadians were deeply concerned about the refugees and requested that the Canadian government provide help. Jews and non-Jews across the country organized protests, demonstrations, petitions, and delegations urging the Canadian government to allow some refugees into Canada. Prime Minister Mackenzie King wrote in his diary after the horrors of Kristallnacht that though it would be "difficult politically," he would fight for the admission of some Jewish refugees because it was "right, just, and Christian."

Many Canadians, however, seemed unmoved or even hostile. Anti-Semitism existed in Canada. During the 1920s and 1930s, some industries refused to hire Jews. There were no Jewish judges, lawyers, or professors, and few Jewish teachers. Jewish nurses, architects, and engineers had to hide their identities to get jobs. Many clubs and resorts openly displayed signs on their doors declaring that no Jews were allowed in. Fascist parties, particularly Adrian Arcand's followers in Quebec, had openly sown hate and suspicion against Jews.

In some cases, discrimination against Jews was based on differences of religious faith. Others saw Jews as "foreigners" who would not easily assimilate or "fit in" to Canadian society. In particular, Jews were seen as people who tended to settle in cities and would not make good farmers. With one million people on relief during the Depression, many Canadians felt Canada could do little for foreigners. They

believed Canada should not accept people who would add to the numbers of unemployed in the cities. But as the *Windsor Star* pointed out, in Palestine Jewish farmers had successfully "turned the desert into a garden."

Canada's immigration policy in the 1920s and 1930s was restrictive. British and American immigrants were "preferred." Others, particularly of non-Anglo-Saxon origin, were actively discouraged and discriminated against. Some people suggested that the Jewish refugees should be assisted, but not in Canada. They believed the refugees should be settled in Asia or Africa.

In December 1938, the Canadian League of Nations Society met with the Prime Minister. It appealed to the government to accept the refugees on purely humanitarian grounds. The delegation was led by Senator Cairine Wilson and was made up of non-Jewish representatives. This was not a plea of Jewish people only. But in the end, Prime Minister King turned aside the requests to open Canada's gates to more Jewish refugees. He stated that "maintaining the unity of the country" and battling unemployment were his first duty, despite his personal sympathies. One government official. Norman Robertson, summarized the situation this way: "We don't want to take too many Jews, but in the present circumstances particularly, we don't want to say so."

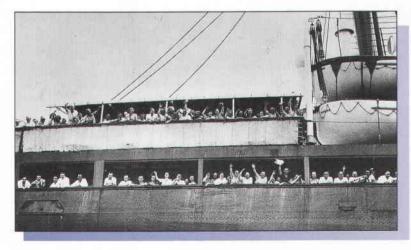
The St. Louis Incident

In June 1939, Canada's policy toward Jewish refugees faced a serious test. The ocean liner *St. Louis* arrived off Canada's East Coast carrying 907 Jews, including 400 women and children. These refugees had already been denied entry into Cuba and other Latin American countries. In desperation, they turned to Canada hop-

ing to find a safe haven. Earlier in 1939, the Canadian government had accepted a group of nearly 3000 Sudeten German refugees, but now refused to allow the passengers on the *St. Louis* to enter Canada. The German refugees would make excellent settlers, it was believed. The Jewish refugees would not. In the House of Commons the Minster of Justice, Ernest Lapointe, spoke for many Canadians when he "emphatically opposed" allowing the ship to land.

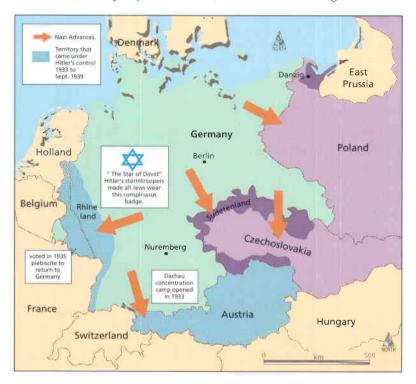
Forty-four well-known Canadians, including professors, editors, industrialists, and members of the Canadian National Committee on Refugees urged Prime Minister King to offer the Jewish passengers sanctuary. But the Canadian government turned down the request. No one on the St. Louis was allowed to step foot on Canadian soil. The ship was forced to return to Europe. Many of the Jews on board eventually died in Nazi concentration camps. The story of the St. Louis was later immortalized in the movie The Voyage of the Damned. Today, Canada has a more open policy in accepting political refugees. Few Canadians would want to repeat the mistakes of the past.

Jewish refugees
aboard the St. Louis
were refused entry
into Latin American
countries and
Canada. Many Jewish
people fleeing Europe
before the war had
difficulty finding new
homes.



The Steps to War

Once Hitler had established power in Germany, he quickly began to rearm the country and take over surrounding territory. Italy and Japan also began to invade foreign territories to add to their empires. Reaction from other nations was cautious at first, but by September 1939, World War II had begun.



Munich Agreement is Signed

Britain and France meet with Hitler and sign the **Munich Agreement**. They allow Germany to have the Sudetenland (the northwestern part of Czechoslovakia) because they believe it will save the world from war. This policy becomes known as "appeasement".

Germany Annexes Austria

Nazi soldiers occupy Austria without a single shot being fired. Again, other nations make no attempt to stop Hitler's advance because they want to avoid another war.

Hitler Occupies the Rhineland

German troops march into the Rhineland. By the Treaty of Versailles, German troops were forbidden from moving within 50 km of the Rhine River. No one stops the German advance.

Germany Rearms

Hitler becomes Chancellor of Germany and immediately begins expanding the German army and air force beyond the limits set out in the Treaty of Versailles. The German military slogan is, "Today Germany. Tomorrow the world!"

Japan Conquers Manchuria

Facing severe economic problems and overcrowding on its islands, Japan invades Manchuria, just north of Korea. The League of Nations takes no decisive action against this Japanese aggression.

Italy invades Ethiopia in Africa to expand its territory and to obtain the region's rich oil resources. Again the League of Nations takes no decisive action.

September 1938

1933

1935

1931

Hitler Invades Poland

Hitler demands that the Polish Corridor (awarded to Poland after the Treaty of Versailles) be handed back to Germany. Poland refuses. The Nazis launch a Blitzkrieg (lightning war) on Poland, Poland falls to the Nazi attack.

Germany and Soviet Union Sign **Non-aggression Pact**

Germany signs a pact with the Soviet Union. The two countries promise not to fight each other in the event of a war. They also secretly agree to divide Poland between them. Hitler is now free to plan his moves against France and Britain in the west. He no longer has to fear an attack from the Soviet Union on the east.

Hitler Occupies Czechoslovakia

Hitler had claimed the Sudetenland was his last demand for territory, but in March 1939 Nazi troops occupy all of Czechoslovakia.

Rome-Berlin Axis Pact is Signed

Hitler signs a pact with Mussolini. Mussolini allows Hitler to take Austria and other territories in northern and central Europe. Hitler promises to let Mussolini take over southern Europe. Later in 1940, Japan joins the alliance. These countries are known as the Axis Powers.

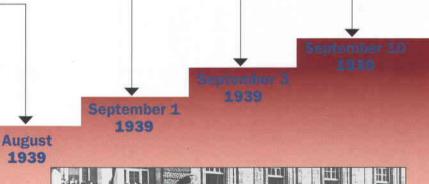
> October 1938

March 1939

Britain and France Declare War

Britain and France realize there can be no more appeasement. They declare war on Germany. World War II begins.

Canada Declares War on Germany



Hitler enters Austria triumphant.

1939



Developing Skills: Using Maps as Visual Organizers

Suppose you need directions to a friend's home for a party. You can ask for verbal directions—whether to go north, south, east, or west, where to turn, or what landmarks to look out for. But if the way is complicated, it will help to have a sketch map. A map is a way of visually presenting or organizing information.

You've just read about Hitler's advances in Europe. How far did Hitler's empire extend by 1939? You could give an accurate picture of the Nazi empire by recording and summarizing information on a map. Every map must have the following four important elements to be complete. Without these, it would be difficult for anyone to use the map.

- I. Title. A map's title should describe the area the map covers and accurately summarize the information it is presenting. If you were describing Hitler's conquests in Europe, why would "Europe, 1935-1939" be a poor title? Why would "Nazi Advancements in Europe, 1935-1939" be a better title?
- **II. Direction.** Direction is indicated by a compass. Most maps are drawn with north at the top. If north is at the top of the map, then you know south is in the opposite direction, east is to the right, and west is to the left.

Try this quiz. Name three countries located to the west of Germany. Name two countries located to the east of the German border.

III. Scale. The scale tells distance and size represented on the map compared with distance and size represented on the earth's surface. When you use the scale on a map, you can measure the approximate distance between two places or the rough size of a country.

Look at the map of Europe on page 222. Use the scale to determine the approximate distance from the German-Danish border in the north to the German-Austrian border in the south. **IV. Key or Legend.** Information can be placed on maps using symbols. A symbol represents or stands for an idea, person, group, or thing. What symbol could you use on a map to stand for Hitler and the Nazi party?

Colours are also often used to represent important information on a map. On a political map, for example, colour can be used to indicate different provinces, states, regions, or countries. What does colour represent in the map on page 222?

Mapping Nazi Advancements

- 1. Start with an outline map of Europe. Give your map a title and be sure that it includes direction and a scale.
- 2. Locate the borders of Germany in 1935. Label Germany and choose an appropriate colour and symbol to indicate Nazi control of the country. Be sure you identify these in your legend or key.
- 3. What territory did Hitler take back in 1936? Label that territory on the map, mark out its borders, and record the year of its occupation. Use your colour or symbol to show it is under Nazi control.
- 4. Which country did Hitler take over in March 1938? Add the name of this country and the date of occupation to the map.
- 5. Label and date the territory gained by Nazi Germany with the Munich Agreement. What additional territory did Hitler seize six months later in March 1939? Add this information to your map.
- 6. Indicate the country seized by the armies of the Third Reich in September 1939.
- 7. As you read through the following chapters, keep your map up-to-date by showing the countries that the Nazis occupied in the rest of Europe.
- 8. Review your map. Have you included the most important information? People should have a clear picture of Nazi advancements from your map. Exchange your map with a classmate and have your partner check that your map is clear, accurate, and complete.

Why Canada Slept

While Hitler, Mussolini (dictator of Italy), and Franco (Spanish dictator) were establishing fascist governments in Europe and making plans for war, Canada and Canadians had not paid a great deal of attention. In a political and military sense, it seemed Canada was sleeping. Why was Canada unprepared for the outbreak of war in 1939?

- Memories of World War I—The tragic losses of World War I were still fresh in many people's minds. The last thing Canadians wanted to consider was another conflict in far-off Europe.
- Pacifism—Many Canadians were completely disillusioned with war and worked tirelessly to promote the cause of peace. Books and films such as *All Quiet on the Western Front* had revealed the tragic waste of war in the twentieth century. The Women's International League for Peace vigorously campaigned for an end to war. Political leaders such as the CCF's J. S. Woodsworth tried to have the House of Commons declare Canada's neutrality in any future war. The pacifists, however, were no match for the aggressive dictators of Europe.
- The Great Depression—Canada was in the tenth year of the Depression. In 1939, there were still over a million people on relief. Canadians were bitterly divided over how to solve the severe problems of the Depression. Foreign politics seemed irrelevant to the plight of most Canadians who had to be concerned about food, clothing, jobs, and shelter.
- Isolationism—Canada, like the United States, followed a policy of isolationism during the 1930s. Canada had joined the League of Nations, but never played

a leading role and wanted to avoid involvement in future conflicts at all costs. More than one Canadian official believed that Canadians lived in a "fire-proof house," far away from Europe's conflicts and hatreds. Some felt Canada, with its small population and limited influence, was not powerful enough to have any effect in the resolution of world problems. When Italy invaded Ethiopia in 1935, Canada's Minister of Justice declared, "No interest in Ethiopia, of any nature whatsoever, is worth the life of a single Canadian citizen."

• Political Leadership—At this point in history, Canada's foreign affairs were largely carried out by Prime Minister Mackenzie King. With only seven diplomatic missions abroad, Canada did not have many contacts in the world. The Prime Minister's major concern was Canadian unity. He was afraid a foreign war would divide Canadians as it had in 1914-18. He also wanted to protect the autonomy Canada had won from Britain. King did not want Canada to be drawn into British imperial conflicts, as it had been in the past.

Prime Minister
Mackenzie King, on
his visit to Nazi
Germany in 1937. Why
do you think King and
many other leaders
misjudged Hitler's
intentions?



• Appeasement—King had enthusiastically supported the policy of appearement in the Munich Agreement of 1938. Along with many other leaders. King misjudged the fascist threat in general, and the character of Adolf Hitler in particular. King had visited Hitler in 1937. After the meeting, King noted that the German dictator seemed to be "a man of deep sincerity and a genuine patriot." He added that Hitler "was a simple sort of peasant, not very intelligent and no serious danger to anyone." King's observations were tragically inaccurate and were a factor in Canada's lack of readiness for World War II.



In 1939, this newspaper headline greeted Canadians at breakfast on Monday, 11 September.



Canadians were shocked by the news that Britain and France were at war with Germany once again. There was not the enthusiasm that had marked the beginning of World War I. Few marching bands paraded in the streets, few flags were waved, and few loud cheers were raised for the call to war. World War I had ended only 20 years before, and few Canadians relished the idea of seeing yet more lives lost.

In September 1939, Canada's entry into the war was also not automatic, as it had been in 1914. Canada was no longer a colony bound to follow Britain into warfare. In the years following World War I, Canada had become an independent nation.

Prime Minister Mackenzie King summoned the Canadian Parliament to an emergency session. One week later, Canada declared war on Germany. It was a momentous occasion. It was the first time that Canada had declared war on its own behalf. In fact, Canada was the only nation in North and South America to declare war against Hitler at this time.

Support for the war was massive if reluctant. Hitler's march to war after Munich had finally awakened most to his threat, and Britain was still Canada's greatest ally. The recent visit by the Royal Family had increased Canadian support for Britain. Few voices were raised in protest against the declaration of war in Canada's Parliament. Only J. S. Woodsworth voted against the war. He declared, "I vote for the children."

The tragedy of war had already been brought home to Canadians. On 3 September 1939, a week before Canada declared war, the passenger liner Athenia was torpedoed by a German submarine. About 200 of the 1500 passengers were Canadian. Several Canadians were killed, including tenyear-old Margaret Hayworth from Hamilton, Ontario. Her death "became a rallying cry for the entire nation" and a state funeral was held. This young casualty helped to convince Canadians of the Nazi threat and encouraged the war effort in Canada.

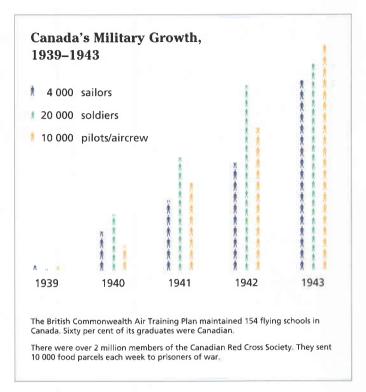
Canadian Preparations

When Canada declared war in 1939, there were only about 10 000 soldiers in its armed forces. For much of the Depression years, the government had reduced military spending. In 1938-39, the budget for defence was only \$35 million. In 1939, the Canadian army possessed only 14 tanks, 29 Bren guns, 23 anti-tank rifles, and 5 small mortar guns. The Canadian navy had exactly 10 operational vessels, and the Royal Canadian Air Force had only 50 modern aircraft.

Though largely unprepared for war, Canada was quick to respond. At this point, the government hoped that Canada's role would be limited. Prime Minister King thought in terms of sending perhaps 40 000 troops and acting mainly as a supplier of food and war materials to Britain. He did not want the war to involve a costly expenditure of Canadian lives, and he wanted to avoid conscription at all costs.

Moving quickly the government proclaimed the War Measures Act, which gave it sweeping powers, and turned to the task of preparing the materials of war. Orders were quickly placed for arms and equipment to bolster Canada's forces. Canadian factories began producing new aircraft. Flying bases were built on both coasts and an air-firing and bombing range was constructed at Trenton, Ontario. To help finance these new war materials, a new series of War Taxes was announced on 12 September.

By the end of September, over 58 000 Canadian men and women had enlisted in the armed forces. Many recruits were unemployed men who were grateful for a new pair of boots, a warm uniform and great coat, three square meals a day, and a private's basic pay of \$1.30 a day. As in 1914, these recruits were all volunteers. However, they went off to war in a more sombre mood than the young recruits in 1914.



On 16 September, the first convoy left for England. By January 1940, 23 000 mostly untrained Canadian troops were in Britain. Their general declared, "We've come here to do a job, then go home." The hope was that the war would be over quickly. Events would soon erase this hope.



Canadian soldiers march off to war. What was the mood in Canada when war was declared?



In 1940, within the first four weeks of action, Hitler's modern army crushed the old-fashioned Polish defences. Next, the powerful German forces overran Denmark, Norway, Belgium, Luxembourg, and the Netherlands. Then, Hitler turned against France. For the second time in 25 years, German troops poured across the French border.

Thousands of British troops had rushed across the English Channel to help defend France. A contingent of Canadian soldiers stayed in Britain to protect it against an expected German invasion. The Canadian commander, General McNaughton, insisted on keeping the Canadian troops together to fight as a unit. The Germans advanced rapidly into France and the British and French troops were trapped. In May 1940, they had to be evacuated from the seaport town of **Dunkirk** on the French coast. Three hundred thousand soldiers were taken safely to Britain, but most of the heavy British war equipment had to be abandoned on the beaches of France. It was a

terrible defeat for the Allies. France had fallen in six weeks.

Mussolini, the Italian dictator, at this moment in June 1940 decided to enter the war on the side of Germany. Mussolini was joining Hitler in the war. Almost all of Europe was in the hands of the Axis powers, Germany and Italy. Only Britain and its Commonwealth allies remained outside their grasp of power. Canada responded and declared war on Italy.

Although Prime Minister King had hoped Canada would be a supplier of war materials in a short, limited war, the reverse became true. Hitler's dramatic success meant that Britain stood alone in Europe and depended more than ever on Canadian support. The Canadian troops in Britain were fresh and well-equipped. More could be sent. As in World War I, Canadian navy convoys were once again a vital lifeline to the survival of Britain. Britain was being bombed day and night by German planes. Canadian food, guns, supplies, and armed forces were desperately needed. Canada, however reluctantly, moved to centre stage in the war.

Activities

Understand Facts and Concepts

- 1. Add these new terms to your Factfile.
 - National Socialist Party (Nazis) "master race"
 - anti-Semitism dictator
 - Nuremberg Laws
 - Kristallnacht

- fascism
 St. Louis
 Munich Agreement
 Axis Powers
 Dunkirk
- 2. Decide whether each of the following statements is true or false and explain why.
 - a) A dictator depends on force to stay in power.
 - b) France, Britain, and Canada gave in to Hitler with appeasement because Germany had promised to pay reparations.

- c) Canada, Britain, and France approved of Hitler's actions when he seized other countries.
- d) France and Britain declared war on Germany when Austria was taken over.
- e) When Britain declared war on Germany, Canada was also automatically at war.
- f) Canada was a refuge for Jews fleeing Europe.
- 3. Decide whether each of the following statements is fact or opinion. Explain.
 - a) Hitler caused World War II.
 - b) Inflation and unemployment were serious problems in Germany in the late 1920s and early 1930s.
 - c) Prime Minister Mackenzie King should not have agreed to the appearement of Germany.
 - d) Canada was not ready to enter a war with Germany in 1939.
 - e) Fascism had no appeal to Canadians.
- 4. a) Provide evidence that anti-Semitism existed in Canada in the 1930s.
 - b) Provide evidence that not all Canadians supported anti-Semitism.

Think and Communicate

- 5. a) Define racism and explain why the Nazi actions were racist.
 - b) What fundamental human and civil rights were denied the Jewish people and other non-Aryans in Nazi Germany?
- 6. a) In groups, discuss the reasons for anti-Semitism in Canada in the 1930s. Do you think these reasons were just? Why or why not? Present your points of view to the class.
 - b) Do these attitudes still exist today? Explain.
- 7. If you were Prime Minister Mackenzie King, would you have allowed the Jewish refugees aboard the *St. Louis* to enter Canada in 1930? Outline the Prime Minister's options and then come to a decision.
- 8. The following reasons have been given for why Western countries did not act to stop Hitler before 1939.
 - a) No one wanted to go to war.
 - b) Britain and France were too weak to fight because of the worldwide depression.
 - c) Some people in Britain thought the Treaty of Versailles had been too harsh.
 - d) Some people thought these territories rightfully belonged to Germany.
 - e) Appeasement was a sacrifice worth making for peace.
 - f) Hitler would stop the Communists.
 - g) No one knew how far Hitler would go in taking over Europe and killing millions of Jewish people.
 - Discuss the meaning of each statement. Decide which are most reasonable and justify your choices.
- 9. In groups, write a script for the morning news that would be broadcast on Monday, 11 September 1939—the day Canada declared war on Germany. Role play the news broadcast for the class or record it on audio or videotape. Include quotations from some of the following people on their reactions to Canada's declaration of war.

- a) a pacifist
- b) a French-Canadian nationalist
- c) a member of Canada's armed forces
- d) a Jewish Canadian
- e) a mother or father who lost a son in World War I
- f) a German Canadian
- g) a Polish or Czechoslovakian Canadian

Apply Your Knowledge

- 10. Today, Canada has a non-discriminatory policy toward accepting refugees. As a Canadian today, what is your reaction to the *St. Louis* incident? Present your views in a few paragraphs.
- 11. Read the following secondary sources.

The first step was to design an emblem, a party flag, and here Hitler could use his artistic talent. After many attempts he produced a black crooked cross on a red background. It was an ancient symbol known as the swastika.

Source: From B. J. Elliott, Hitler and Germany, 1966.

In Mein Kampf, Hitler pretended the swastika flag was his invention. In fact, one of the party members, the dentist Friedrich Krohn, had designed it for a local party group in May 1920.

Source: From Joachim Fest, Hitler, 1974.

- a) What two interpretations of the swastika's origin are described in the above quotations? How do they disagree?
- b) Can both sources be correct? Explain your answer. Which explanation seems more likely? Why?
- c) Why would Hitler want people to believe that he invented the swastika symbol?

Canadians at War



*

The Battle of Britain

Before German troops could invade Britain, Hitler had to destroy the Royal Air Force. In August 1940, the Luftwaffe (German airforce) began attacking southern England and London. Night after night, wave upon wave of bombers struck at British targets. The Nazis called it a war of terror. The British called it the Blitz, short for Blitzkrieg (lightning warfare).

The nightly attacks were designed to destroy the British will

to resist. Though thousands were killed and houses and property were destroyed, the British refused to give up. Londoners grew used to spending their nights in air raid shelters or underground subway stations. To the amazement of all, the greatly outnumbered Royal Air Force shot almost 3000 Nazi planes out of the skies in two months. Speaking of the



Night Target, Germany by Canadian artist Miller Brittain.

defence of the country provided by the Royal Air Force, Prime Minister Churchill said, "Never was so much owed by so many to so few."

Canadian fighter pilots helped seal the Allied victory. Nearly one quarter of the "famous few" Churchill talked about were Canadians flying for the RAF or the RCAF's No.1 (Canadian) Squadron. One particularly successful RAF unit was 242 Squadron, which was made up almost

entirely of Canadian pilots. Their commander, Douglas Bader, was a British hero who had lost both legs in an accident before the war.

Losses were high, and 16 of the first 25 Canadian pilots sent into the skies perished. At the peak of the battle, the lives of the young pilots were measured in weeks. Canadian pilots were credited with 60 definite hits and

50 "possibles." The efforts of these pilots ily, give up the idea of trying to bomb Britain convinced the Germans to, at least temporar- out of the war.

- 1. How does the painting by Miller Brittain show the perils of air warfare?
- 2. Why was defence against the Blitzkrieg so critical?

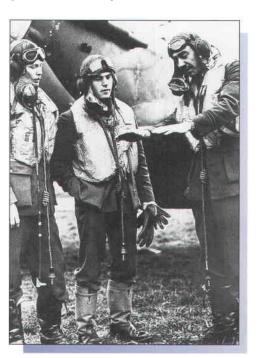




🖰 Canada's Role

The Battle of Britain, fought from July to October 1940, marked the beginning of the long struggle against Nazi aggression in Europe that was to continue until 1945. Canadian pilots in the Royal Canadian Air Force and the Royal Air Force fought alongside other Allied pilots in the air. Later Canadian aircrews hammered the German forces from the skies. At sea. Canadian ships helped to ensure that vital supplies crossed the Atlantic. They tracked and sunk German submarines that were gathered in "wolf packs."

Royal Canadian Air Force pilots make plans for their battles in the skies.



Canadian troops also played a major role in the battles at Hong Kong, Dieppe, in the Italian campaign, and on the beaches of Normandy on D-Day. In the final year of the war, Canadian forces liberated French and Dutch territory. They also helped to free some of the prisoners in the Nazi death camps.

As in World War I, though Canada started with only a small fighting force, Canadians made a major contribution to the war effort and gained international prestige. This chapter focuses on the role Canadians played in some major battles of World War II.

Canadians at Hong Kong, 1941

In December 1941, the Japanese attacked Pearl Harbour, bringing the United States into the war. Canada joined its allies in declaring war on Japan. It was now a truly global war. With European nations focussing on Hitler and Mussolini, Japanese forces were able to swiftly overtake European colonies in Asia. Hong Kong was a vital British colony. A small Canadian contingent had been assigned to its defence, along with British and Indian troops. Some of the Canadian soldiers were only 15 years of age. One revealed, "I only had 20 days training. I learned to salute. I learned how to turn right, turn left, but I never fired a shot before I got here."

The Canadian troops in Hong Kong were the first to see active battle in the war. They faced an almost impossible task. The Japanese forces attacked with artillery and airplanes. In the company's last stand, Sergeant-Major, John Osborne won Canada's first Victoria Cross. Osborne's unit was pinned down by Japanese forces. As the Canadians scrambled through a ravine, the Japanese began throwing grenades. Osborne quickly picked up the grenades and threw them back. When one grenade landed too far away to be picked up, he told his soldiers to clear out and threw himself on the grenade. He was killed instantly. Japanese forces often drew reference to the stubborn determination of the Canadian defenders.

Although they fought bravely, the Canadian troops were not well-equipped. They surrendered after 17 days of hard fighting on 25 December 1941. The Canadians lost 290 soldiers, including their commander. Nearly 500 were wounded. But their ordeal was just beginning.

Survivors were transferred to Japanese prison camps for the remainder of the war. Many were treated harshly. Japanese soldiers had contempt for soldiers who did not fight to the death. Prisoners of war were used as slave labour in coal and iron mines. Some were tortured and badly beaten. A total of 267 Canadians died in Japanese prison camps. At war's end, most were like skeletons, wracked by disease and years of hardship. Hong Kong veterans have pressed Canada to exact a formal apology from the Japanese and compensation for their losses. During World War II, prisoners of war were treated with particular brutality on both sides.

The Dieppe Raid, 1942

By August 1942, the Allies had a plan. It was to send Canadian and British troops, restless for action, to test the German forces along the French coast at Dieppe. This would relieve some of the German pressure on the Soviets in the east.

The raid at **Dieppe** was planned to be a quick punch at the German stronghold. The Allies hoped to worry the Nazis, gather crucial information about their coastal defences, and then return safely to Britain. The manoeuvre was called "Operation Jubilee." It would be a dress rehearsal for the full-scale Allied invasion of Europe to follow.

At 4:50 on the morning of 19 August 1942, 5000 Canadians began to land on the beaches at Dieppe. But, the German forces were ready for the attack. German artillery on the cliffs mowed down the soldiers as they left the landing crafts and tried to run for cover. Allied sea and air support was not enough to protect the soldiers on the open, stony shore. Tanks that were meant to lead the way for the soldiers bogged down on the beach.

Some forces managed to reach the town, but the vast majority were killed. By early afternoon, nearly 900 of the Canadian troops were dead or dying. Over 1000 were wounded. Nineteen hundred prisoners of war were taken by the Germans, and only 2200 of those who landed that morning returned to Britain.

A French Canadian, who fought with the Fusiliers Mont-Royal, recalled his experience at Dieppe: The dead lay scattered on the beach at Dieppe. Two-thirds of the attacking force were killed, wounded, or captured—many of them Canadians. The raid was a disaster.



... the wounded and dead lay scattered on the beach. Some of the wounded were trying to swim out to the boats [and] many were bleeding heavily, reddening the water around them. [Once ashore] ... mortar bombs are bursting on the shingle and making little clouds which seem to punctuate the deafening din ... close to me badly mutilated bodies lie here and there. The wounded scream, the blood flows from their wounds ... For myself, I am absolutely astounded to have reached the shelter of a building. I was certain that my last hour had arrived.

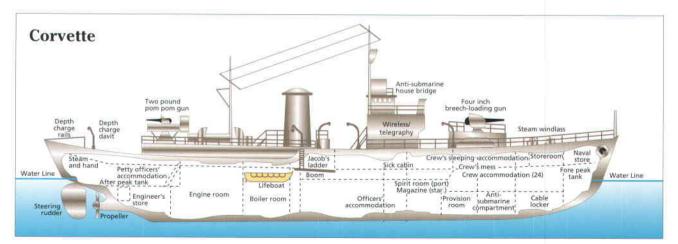
There was a horrible loss of life at Dieppe. Canadian Colonel C. P. Stacey noted, "Tactically, it was an almost complete failure." Today, people still argue over whether the raid had been properly planned. Could some of the terrible losses have been avoided? Was Dieppe another Passchendaele? A survivor who returned to Dieppe 40 years later said, "We have no memorial and no marker here. The only thing we left on this beach was blood."

Military leaders claimed that important lessons were learned. When the decisive invasion of Europe finally came two years later, the Allies remembered their Dieppe experience. This time, fire support by sea and air would be overwhelming, and a way would be found to land large numbers of troops and equipment safely on the beaches of France.

Canadians at Sea

In 1942, the island of Britain was in deadly danger. Fifty million people could not live or fight without food and supplies from outside. Britain, and later Russia, depended on a lifeline of supplies from North America. It was the job of naval and air forces to make sure the precious cargoes got through safely.

This was not an easy task. German Uboats (submarines) lurked in the dark waters of the Atlantic Ocean. The German submarine crews termed the opening months of the war "the Happy Time," because they sunk Allied ships so easily and quickly. The submarines blasted merchant ships from the United States and Canada as they steamed toward British ports. Winston Churchill said later, "The only thing that ever really frightened me during the war was the U-boat peril." Cargo vessels were being sunk at the rate of 20 a week, and the Germans were busy building eight U-boats for every one they lost.



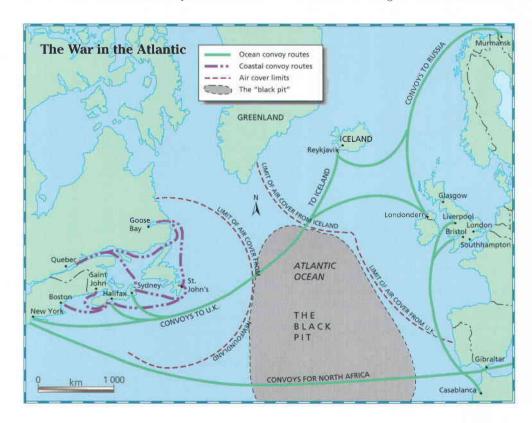
The Royal Canadian Navy (RCN) was a small force at the outbreak of the war with 11 ships and 20 000 sailors. But by the war's end. Canada had the third largest navy in the world with nearly 400 warships and 113 000 personnel, including 7000 women. Canadians played an important role in escorting groups of supply ships across the Atlantic. Fifty or sixty supply ships would travel as a group in **convoys**. Most convoys were escorted by three or four corvettes. The corvette was a small. fast vessel that accompanied the larger supply ships. By the end of the war, the RCN had escorted over 25 000 merchant ships to Great Britain and thousands more to ports in Russia and the Mediterranean.

Though their contribution has often been overlooked, civilian sailors of the **Merchant Marine** also played a vital role in the war at sea. In the convoys, they sailed the cargo ships—the main targets of the German submarines. They also suffered

some of the greatest losses in the war. Often convoys had to go on when one of their ships was torpedoed. It was too dangerous to slow down and pick up survivors. Even in Canadian coastal waters, sailors were at risk. In 1942, German submarines penetrated the Gulf of the St. Lawrence. They sank 19 merchant ships and two naval escorts. That same year, a Uboat torpedoed the Newfoundland car ferry killing 136 people. Some historians believe that getting vital supplies through to Britain was Canada's most decisive contribution to the war effort.

A Canadian who sailed on a corvette describes the role these sailors played.

Convoy duty, that was quite a job. Very much like a cowboy herding his cattle. Keeping them together and keeping the wolves away. Sometimes they would get scattered for one reason or another and we would have to get them back on sta-



The "Black Pit" was an area in the Atlantic Ocean where there was no air cover for the convoys.





SPOTLIGHT On...

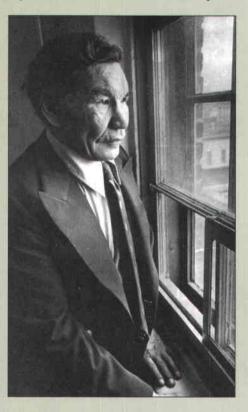
Tommy Prince and the Carty Family

Tommy Prince

Aboriginal nations had a long history of defending Canada, including heroic actions in the War of 1812 and World War I. Although discrimination was a problem at home, and registered Indians did not have the right to vote until 1960, most Aboriginal communities were ready to support Canada in the war effort. In World War II, about 3000 Aboriginal people enlisted, including 72 women. Another estimated 10 000 to 30 000 people with part Aboriginal heritage also joined Canada's forces. As in previous campaigns, Aboriginal soldiers were especially skilled in the dangerous work of sniping and reconnaissance. They

were readily accepted into the army, but Canada's navy and airforce took only recruits who were "of pure European descent."

One of the most decorated Aboriginal soldiers was Tommy Prince. Prince won both British and American medals. A member of the Brokenhead Band of Scanterbury, Alberta, he served first as a sapper with the Royal Canadian Engineers, and then as a paratrooper with the First Canadian Special Service Battalion. This Canadian unit later merged with an American unit and became an elite commando force known as the "Devil's Brigade." Working deep behind enemy lines, Prince was a skilled scout. He often directed Allied artillery fire



toward enemy guns. Once, when his field phone connection was cut off during the Italian campaign, he dressed up as an Italian farmer and walked out in plain sight of enemy soldiers to repair the line. This act of bravery won him the Military Cross. Prince later served with Canadian forces during the Korean War.

Aboriginal people who enlisted in the armed forces, however, were expected to enfranchise. This meant they lost their special rights as registered Indians. Some could not return to their reserves. They did not receive veteran's pension. Though they had fought for Canada, they were denied any voice in the country's

affairs. Their contributions were largely ignored. In 1996, the Canadian government unveiled a special memorial in Ottawa to commemorate the contributions of Aboriginal people in Canada's wars and peacekeeping efforts.

The Cartys

In 1940, the Canadian army moved to ban the enlistment of Black Canadians. But as in World War I, this attempt failed. By the end of the war, many Black Canadians had served in all branches of the military. Five members of the Carty family from New Brunswick served in the air force. Gerry and Don Carty tell their stories below.

Gerry: When I was 16½, I went with my closest friend, Gordie Barnes, to see the recruiting officer. We selected aircrew. There were 90 or so in our flying course and I came first. I was commissioned as a pilot officer at 18. When I graduated in



1943, I had the weird distinction of being Canada's youngest officer.

Four days before wings parade, I was asked to step into the commanding officer's office. The discussion took about 20 seconds. He just wanted to see me. Apparently, he had received a memo from Ottawa asking, "Are you sure this is the man you selected for commission?" It seems headquarters had seen pictures of me. The officer was mad as hell that such a letter had been written. That's about the only time I had encountered discrimination in the military.

When I was posted to England in 1943, mother sent me a picture of my friend Gordie from the newspaper in my first mail. He was the tail gunner on a bomber and he was killed on his first trip. That was my first contact with death. I never cease thoughts of him.

After the war, I applied to Air Canada. There were mailings back and forth, it all looked good. Then, I submitted my photo and never heard from them again. I thought: "Wow, is this what I came back to?" I didn't find much discrimination in Canada when I was growing up. And I wasn't bitter against Air Canada. I opened up an electronics servicing centre. I set up Fredericton's first cable system in 1955. And I started my own air charter company.

Don: I joined in May, 1943, because there was a war on and most of my brothers were in the service. I was 19, still green. My dad and several uncles were in the First World War together. My dad said they had to canvass to get a commanding officer, because nobody wanted to command Black troops.

The discrimination I ran into was more or less on an individual basis. You'd go on parade, and somebody would think it's time to tell minstrel jokes. Or somebody would expect you to sing and dance. You learn how to handle these things, and you change a lot of attitudes. I generally had the support of the command.

After the war, I eventually became a postman. But it was not easy to find a job. I would apply and they would tell me it was taken. Or you would look for housing and be told it was taken, and you'd call back moments later and they'd say: "Oh yes, the place is still open."

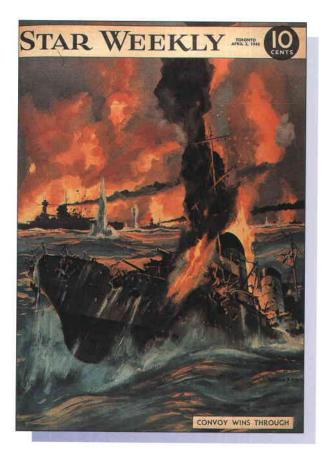
Source: "The War Generation", *Maclean's*, April 3, 1995.

- 1. Provide evidence that Tommy Prince and the Cartys made contributions to Canada at war and in peacetime.
- 2. What evidence is there that they experienced discrimination?
- 3. If you had the chance to meet Tommy Prince or the Carty family, what would you say to them?
- 4. How does your community treat racial minorities today? Explain.

tion. If one got hit, all hell would break loose. Some of the escort ships would be dispatched to find the sub. Others were on the lookout for survivors and keeping the convoy together.

In 1942, the Allies lost 1164 ships. But better training, battle experience, improved radar for underwater detection of submarines, and protection provided by patrol aircraft eventually helped to ensure that supply ships got through to Britain. In the last 4 months of 1944, the tide had clearly turned. The Allies lost 24 ships, but the Germans lost 55 U-boats.

With an adequate supply of food and ammunition, the Allies could face the Nazis on an equal basis. Events were turn-



The cover illustration of Star Weekly in 1943 shows Allied battleships sinking a Nazi raider. Convoys were getting through.



Netsurfer
To visit an aircraft museum and
learn more about World War II
planes, visit
http://canopus.lpi.msk.su/
~watson/wwiiap.html.

ing in favour of the Allies. British and American soldiers were on the offensive in the deserts of North Africa. American Gls (enlisted soldiers) advanced against the Japanese, island by island, in the steaming jungles of the Pacific.

Canadians in the Air

In 1942, the systematic bombing of German cities by the Allies had begun. At first, the aim was to destroy German industries, railways, highways, bridges, and oil refineries. However, Allied air chiefs decided to try to destroy the German fighting spirit by mercilessly pounding cities from the air. On the night of 30 May, a thousand

bombers raided the city of Cologne. From 24 to 31 July, Hamburg was attacked eight times. Sixty per cent of the city was destroyed by fire bombs and 80 000 civilians were killed.

Later in the war, cities such as Cologne and Berlin faced wave upon wave of Allied bombers. However, the bombing did not destroy the German will to continue fighting. Just as the German "Blitz" on London had steeled British determination to win, so were the Germans determined to fight on under the rain of Allied bombs. The only real result was the thousands of civilian deaths in this "total" war.

Canada's airforce was small in 1939. but by the end of the war it was the fourth largest in the world. Many Canadians also continued to fly in British Royal Air Force squadrons. Canadians were engaged in the dangerous job of bombing enemy targets at night. The losses were high and the results sometimes questionable. Some Allied bombing missions resulted in as many as 500 aircrew lost in one mission. Pilots had to contend with fast enemy fighters, anti-aircraft fire, radar, poor weather, darkness, unreliable equipment, fatigue, and being found in the glare of enemy searchlights. One pilot noted, "Bombers were falling at the rate of one a minute."

In the night, under fire, bombs often went astray. They missed industrial targets and killed civilians, mostly women and children. After the terrible bombing of Allied cities by German bombers at the outset of the war, most pilots hardened themselves to the task. One flight engineer, John Giblin, recalled:

You just accept the [bombing]. You are told you are going and that's that. I can remember, at our [Berlin] briefing. They told us if we didn't hit the factories ... we'd be bombing the homes of people,

which rather upset me to a degree. But it didn't stop me from going.

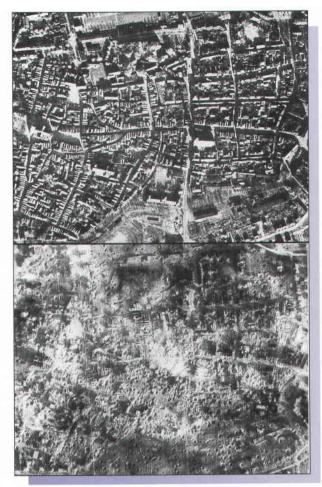
One of the famous raids of the war was that of the "Dambusters." On 17 May 1943, Canadian bombers took part in the daring raid on hydroelectric installations in the Ruhr valley of Germany. The goal was to cripple German industry and shorten the war. The pilots had to fly dangerously low and then send "spinning bombs" bouncing along the water like skipping stones. The raid was partially successful. Two dams were blown. But the cost to Canadians was high. Of the 30 aircrew sent out, 13 were killed and one was taken prisoner. The average age of the Canadian crew was 23.

The Italian Campaign, 1943

On 10 July 1943, Canadian, British, and American forces made an assault on Sicily from the sea. The First Canadian Division spearheaded the attack, known as Operation Husky. Most soldiers had joined in 1939 and had four years of training. Their General, Guy Simonds, was only 39 years old. Units of the RCAF and RCN also participated in the invasion. On the first day, the Canadians suffered 60 casualties, but captured 650 enemy soldiers. They struggled against a blistering sun and malaria, as much as against enemy fire. After a month, they had sustained 2310 casualties, including 12 nursing sisters. But they had captured their objectives.

The Italian people were demoralized. Italian soldiers lost the will to fight and soon turned on their fascist dictator Mussolini and drove him from power. However, Hitler sent hundreds of thousands of German troops to hold Italy.

The relatively quick success of Operation Husky emboldened Allied com-



manders to attempt the conquest of mainland Italy. The Italian campaign was designed to take pressure off our Russian Allies and steal German troops from northwestern Europe, where the main attack on Hitler's forces was to take place. The successful landings on Sicily and Italy also gave the Allies valuable experience in running large-scale invasions.

On 3 September 1943, Allied forces pushed into the Italian mainland. Canadians found little resistance at the "toe" of Italy. But they soon encountered tough, skilled German troops as they marched up the "boot" of Italy. The Germans organized several heavily defended battle lines using

Before and after photos of a bombed German city.



Netsurfer

For more information on Canada's Armed Forces and their roles both during and after the world wars, visit the web site of the Department of National Defence at www.dnd.ca.

FAST FORWARD

The 55th anniversary of the Battle of Ortona was marked in 1998 by a special "Reconciliation Christmas Dinner," attended by German, Italian, and Canadian veterans. One German soldier of 79 noted: "I am here to remember. I wanted very much to see the Canadians again. I respect these people. I have absolutely no feeling of hatred for them. You cannot possibly understand because you are young and have had a different life. Yes, these Canadians were the enemy. But we were all just soldiers, we were fighting for our countries because that is what was demanded of us."

the mountains and rugged terrain to their advantage.

In December, the Canadian troops had advanced as far as **Ortona** on Italy's east coast. Ortona was a natural fortress surrounded by high ridges and deep gullies. The First German Parachute Division was an elite fighting force. They were determined to hold the town at all costs. They fortified buildings, booby-trapped houses, and blew up dwellings to block the narrow streets of the town.

The Canadians were forced to take the town, street by street and house by house. They developed a technique called "mouseholing." After taking one house, they blasted a hole from the attic into the neighbouring house. Once inside they poured grenades and machine gun fire on the enemy until the house was taken. Then they moved on to the next house. The process was slow, but successful. Canadians soon gained a reputation as elite street fighters.

After a week of furious battle, Ortona was in Canadian hands. Much of the town was in rubble. The casualties were staggering. Canadian losses included 176 officers and 2163 men. But the troops continued their long march up the boot of Italy. Eventually, in June 1944, the Allies took Rome. Canadian forces stayed in Italy until early 1945. Though later overshadowed by D-Day and the fighting in Western Europe, the Italian campaign was a key ingredient in the eventual Allied victory.



"OK, we'll go!" With these words, General Eisenhower, commander-in-chief of the Allied Forces, announced the beginning of the long-awaited invasion of Europe. Since the disaster at Dieppe, the Allies had been carefully planning. This time they would be ready. The Normandy beaches of northern France were selected as the site of the invasion. Normandy was close to Britain and the invading army, supply ships, and reinforcements would not have far to travel.

A huge army gathered in the south of England. American troops numbering 1.25 million joined a similar number of British and Commonwealth troops, including 30 000 Canadians. Four thousand landing craft, 700 war ships, and 11 000 planes were ready.

The Germans had 60 divisions in northern France and the Netherlands under the command of Field Marshall Rommel. In the spring of 1944, Allied bombers started attacking and destroying Nazi military sites in northern France. The idea was to soften the enemy defences.

D-Day, Day of Deliverance, was fixed for 5 June 1944. But the invasion had to be postponed because of bad weather. At 2:00 a.m. on 6 June, paratroopers were dropped to protect the landing forces. Seventy-five minutes later, 2000 bombers began to pound the German defences on



Troops battle their way from landing ships to the beaches of Normandy on D-Day, 6 June 1944.

the beaches. At 5:30 a.m., the air raids were joined by the guns of the Allied warships. Then at precisely 6:30 a.m., the first waves of Canadian, British, and American troops poured onto the beaches of France.

This was Canada's largest military operation. Parachutists were dropped behind enemy lines. Fourteen thousand soldiers were set to hit the beaches of France. The Royal Canadian Navy had 100 ships with 10 000 sailors in the operation. Flying overhead were 36 bomber squadrons of the RCAF.

The Canadian soldiers landed at Juno Beach. They faced underwater obstacles, land mines, barbed wire, and heavy machine-gun fire from the Germans. At the end of the day, they had met their objectives, the only Allied force to do so that day. They had suffered 335 dead and 739 other casualties. A Canadian Forward Observation Officer, John Finn, described

his role in the battle. He was assigned to fly a glider with troops, a jeep, and radio equipment behind the enemy lines.

We were towed across the Channel by aircraft in squadrons of 10 or 15 gliders, and then we were released just as we hit the coast The first thing we had to do was haul the tail off the glider so we could get the jeep out. You didn't stay where you landed. You got out of there as fast as you could. It was dark, but we could hear gunfire and cars revving up and tanks moving. We drove, maybe a couple of miles, to a small village called Ranville and hauled our radio equipment up a church steeple, which was our first observation post.

When daylight came, there was firepower everywhere. It was one big gathering of men and materials and planes and guns. We got the wireless out and started to send stuff about the ranges and location of German troops to the warships out in the Channel. We called for a few shots and they were socking them down. We were right in the middle of the battle.

When I finally had a look around, I realized how fortunate we were to have a good landing. A lot of the men in our section had been killed or were just gone. There were gliders buckled up and burned all over, some with bodies beside

them. Those first few hours of the invasion were what I call the confusion hours. You look back on it and you wonder how it all happened. You were in England one minute and France the next.

Within a week, the Allies had 300 000 troops safely on shore. Within a month, 1 million Allies had landed with 200 000 military vehicles. Though the Nazi forces fought hard, Hitler was now caught with war on two fronts, east and west.



The Technological Edge

INVENTIONS AND WAR

Scientists were as important in World War II as soldiers. Both Allied and Nazi researchers were applying scientific techniques to try to win the war.

Radar

The British made important advances in the development and use of radar during the war. Radar uses electromagnetic waves reflected from ships, aircraft, coasts, and other objects. These electromagnetic waves are beamed out, reflected from the target. and picked up by the radar unit. The signals are then converted into images on the radar screen. Radar provided an early warning system of approaching hostile aircraft and ships. After 1943. radar was mounted in Allied planes. The reflected radio waves produced a map-like image of the target below. This made it possible to carry out strategic bombing in darkness and heavy clouds.

Jets and Rockets

Hitler's scientists developed the first jet airplane that could fly at speeds faster than propeller-driven aircraft. These would have given Germany air supe-

riority if they had been used as fighter planes. But Hitler's demand that the jet plane be adapted for bombing held up production until late 1944.

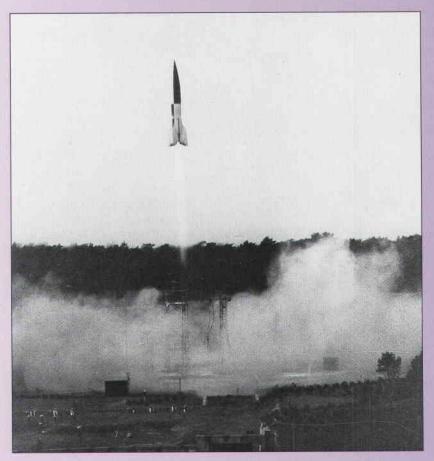
Nazi scientists were also busy developing two terrifying "vengenance" weapons. The first, the V-1, was a pilotless monoplane that carried an explosive warhead. Almost 10 000 were fired at British cities in late 1944. They were nicknamed "buzz-bombs" by the British because of the noise they made.

The V-2 rocket was even more deadly. It flew at supersonic speed and gave no warning or opportunity for defence. British Intelligence was able to discover and bomb the launching sites, delaying the program for several months.

Wernher von Braun was the German rocket scientist who developed the V-2. After the war, he surrendered to the Americans. He eventually worked for the Americans in the development of intercontinental ballistic missiles and spacecraft for NASA.

The Atomic Bomb

Albert Einstein was a German-Jewish scientist who fled to the United States to escape the Nazis. In 1939 he wrote to President Roosevelt to warn him that Germany was working on a bomb that would be



A V-2 rocket blasts off in northeast Germany. These remote-controlled rockets travelled at speeds faster than sound and were almost undetectable.

capable of mass destruction. In response to Einstein's warning, Roosevelt established the **Manhattan Project**. Robert Oppenheimer was appointed to lead a group of American and Allied scientists in developing the bomb. Soon both Allied and German scientists were engaged in a top-secret race to produce the first atomic bomb.

A number of Canadian scientists worked on the project. The Canadian government also secretly supplied uranium for the project. Uranium was the most vital ingredient for the atomic bomb. It was mined at Great Bear Lake in the Northwest Territories. Port

Hope, Ontario, was the site of the only uranium refinery outside of Nazi Europe.

On 16 July 1945, the Allies won the desperate race and successfully tested a bomb in the desert of New Mexico. That day marked the beginning of the Atomic Age. A flash of nuclear fire flooded the desert with a dazzling white light. The steel tower from which the bomb was dropped vapourized in the intense heat. A huge mushroom cloud rose over the desert.

The following month, in August 1945, the United States dropped atomic bombs on the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki. The bombs were small by today's standards, but their devastating effects brought World War II to an end. On 15 August, the Japanese Emperor Hirohito surrendered unconditionally to the Allies.

- 1. How did Canada participate in the development of the atomic bomb?
- 2. a) Which of the scientific advancements in this feature do you consider the most positive and long-lasting? Why?
 - b) Which were the most negative? Why?
 - c) How are these advancements being used today?
- 3. It has been said that wars encourage technological improvements for society. Do you agree with this statement? Explain your point of view and support it with facts.





SPOTLIGHT On...

Louis Slotin

Louis Slotin was one of the brilliant Canadian scientists working on the Manhattan Project to build an atomic bomb. He was born in Winnipeg, Manitoba, the eldest child of Russian-Jewish immigrants. A bright student, Louis went on to study at the University of Manitoba, and then in London, England and in Chicago.

His work on the Manhattan Project was so secret that even his family did not know what he was doing. The triggering mechanism used to detonate the first test bomb was built by Slotin.

One of Slotin's experiments was in the creation of critical mass. This experiment involved joining pieces of plutonium to the point where the neutron count increased to the critical state. The procedure was conducted bare-handed. Slotin used nothing more than a screwdriver and a scientist's good judgement. The idea was to bring the two pieces of plutonium as close together as possible without allowing them to touch. Slotin had to keep a close eye on the rising needle of the Geiger counter. When it reached the danger level, he would separate the pieces. This risky procedure was called "tickling the dragon's tail."

On 21 May 1946, as Slotin was conducting a critical mass experiment, he slipped. The lab was instantly filled with a brilliant blue light. Before an



explosion could occur, Slotin lunged forward and separated the two hemispheres with his bare hands. He took the full brunt of a nuclear detonation in his stomach. Louis Slotin received a lethal dose of radiation and died in agony nine days later. His assistant also suffered serious injuries, but the

six other people in the room recovered. By his action, Slotin managed to save the others. His body was flown back to Winnipeg in a lead coffin. Under instructions from the US military, the coffin was not to be opened under any circumstances. Louis Slotin was an accidental victim of a "critical reaction" of the fissionable element, plutonium.

- 1. Louis Slotin's nephew wrote: "It's important that Canadians know who their heroes are . . . Our young people don't know much about Canadians who made sacrifices and who have created history in this country." Do you think Louis Slotin was a hero? Explain.
- 2. Slotin's nephew also noted, "It's important for people to understand how an individual can get into a situation with such tremendous conflicts." What do you think he meant?

The Liberation of Europe

While forces were landing on the beaches of Normandy on D-Day, other Allied forces invaded Europe from the south through Italy and France. Hitler struck back by unleashing his secret weapons, the flying bomb V-1 and the deadly, faster-than-sound rocket V-2, at war-weary Britain. These missiles were aimed at British cities. But as the Allied invading forces swept north through Belgium, they overran the rocket launching sites.

Fighting continued for 11 months after the landings at Normandy. Canadian forces continued to press forward in Italy and Western Europe. Some of the toughest fighting fell to Canadian soldiers, who lost 1000 men for each of the remaining months of the war.

Canadian units had to clear German forces from the channel ports. These

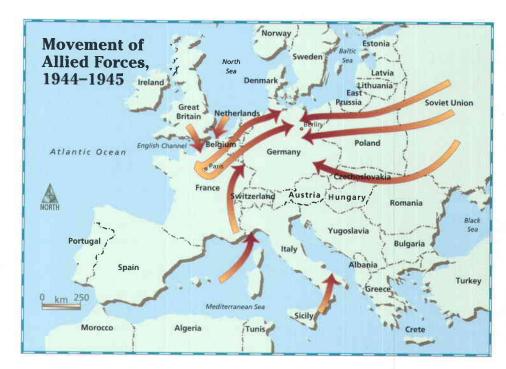
included Dieppe, where the Canadians paraded in victory before the townspeople who had seen them slaughtered two years before. As the Nazis retreated from Holland, they flooded the lowlands. Canadian troops pushed the Nazis out from the dykes and towns of the Netherlands. The campaign cost 7600 casualties, but on 5 May, the German generals surrendered to the Canadian troops.

Until the Allies could bring in food supplies, some Dutch people had nothing to eat but tulip bulbs. But Holland was liberated, and Canadian forces turned to feeding a starving population. The Dutch exploded with gratitude. One soldier reported, the people "ransacked their gardens so that the rain of flowers which falls on the Allied vehicles is endless."

As Allied armies pressed toward Germany, Hitler called upon his soldiers to fight even more fiercely. He warned that whoever gave up a centimetre of German



Canadian soldiers are surrounded by Dutch civilians as they march in to liberate the Netherlands.



territory while still alive was a traitor. In a last desperate move, Hitler ordered his reserves and 3000 tanks against the Allies in Western Europe. Eventually, the Allies broke through and the German retreat began.

Meanwhile, the Russians were advancing on Berlin from the east. Although the Germans resisted fiercely, they could not hold back the attack that was coming on all sides. By April 1945, Soviet troops were in Berlin. The end could not long be delayed. By 8 May 1945, the fighting in Europe was over. Hitler learned that the Italian dictator, Mussolini, had been captured and killed. Mussolini's body had been strung up by the heels in a public square in Milan. Hitler planned to kill himself rather than suffer the same fate. On 30 April 1945, Hitler shot himself. His body was burned. The next day, Goebbels announced on radio that Hitler had died a hero's death leading his troops.

On 7 May 1945, Nazi Germany ceased to exist. **VE Day**, Victory in Europe Day,

had arrived. The long struggle in Europe was over. Millions of people did not live to enjoy peacetime. One of them was the young Jewish girl, Anne Frank. She had spent much of the war hiding from the Nazis. In August 1944, they caught up with her. She died in the Bergen-Belsen concentration camp in March 1945, just a month before the camp was liberated by Canadian and British soldiers.

The Holocaust

As they moved into German-held territory in Europe, Allied armies had been making horrifying discoveries. They came across the concentration camps. The Nazis had set up concentration camps run by the SS (one of Hitler's special police forces). Most prisoners were there because they were Jews. Others were political prisoners who had dared to speak out against the Nazis.

In 1942, the Nazis had devised one of the most horrific schemes in human history. They had decided that every Jewish man, woman, and child would be transported to concentration camps and exterminated. Hitler called this the "**final solution**" to the "Jewish problem" in Europe.

Dachau and Bergen-Belsen were typical of the camps in Germany. Here all prisoners were put to work for the Nazi war effort. At least 5 million slaves were working in the German camps. In some places, medical experiments were carried out on helpless human beings who were used as guinea pigs.

At places like Treblinka, Sobibor, and Maidanek in Poland, hanging, shooting, torturing, and overworking were all used to kill Jewish people. At Auschwitz, victims were crowded into gas chambers disguised as showers. The shower rooms were sealed and Zyklon B gas was dropped into the chambers through a small opening in the ceiling. It took from three to fifteen minutes to kill all those confined within the chamber. The bodies were then removed by a special detachment of prisoners. Gold fillings from the teeth of the victims were melted down and made into gold bars. Other valuables such as watches, bracelets, and rings were also deposited in secret bank vaults for future use. Then the corpses were placed in ovens for cremation. Six thousand could be gassed in a day at Auschwitz.

Some of the most moving stories of bravery and heroism have come out of the death camps. At Auschwitz there was an 18-year-old girl, Rosa Robota. Rosa and



Belsen Concentration Camp—Malnutrition by Canadian war artist Aba Bayefsky.

- 1. Aba Bayefsky painted this image based on a starving German-Jewish boy he came across in the Bergen-Belsen concentration camp in early 1945. Why do you think he felt compelled to paint images like this one?
- 2. In what ways does this single image reflect the conditions in the death camps?



www3.ca.nizkor.org.

many of her friends were forced to work for the Nazis in a gunpowder factory. They planned to steal enough gunpowder to blow up the crematorium and the gas chambers. Every day, a dozen girls smuggled out small quantities of explosives hidden in the hems of their dresses. The explosives were buried around the camp until there was a sizeable stockpile.

On the afternoon of 7 October 1944, they successfully blew up Number 3 Crematorium. The Gestapo were enraged by this act of sabotage. An investigation was begun and Rosa and the girls were arrested. Every day Rosa was beaten, and after four days of torture the Nazis hanged her.

Hours before her death Rosa Robota managed to smuggle out a message from the death cell. It read, "Be strong and brave." The message helped give strength to others in Auschwitz who would become victims of Hitler's "final solution!"

By the end of the war, Hitler had destroyed over one-third of the Jews in Europe. It is estimated that 6 million people, among whom Anne Frank was one, were put to death. Their only crime was that they were not members of the "master race."

Before the war ended, orders went out from Berlin to destroy the camps to keep them secret. But time ran out as Russian. British, Canadian, and American forces overran the camps. The first battle-hardened soldiers who entered these death factories often broke down and cried. One soldier turned his machine gun on the camp guards. If Canadian troops had ever doubted whether the war was worth fighting, the Nazi death camps made it clear that the fight though tragic, was just. The Allies decided that parts of some camps should be preserved. They would be a permanent reminder of the Holocaust, the Nazi's systematic destruction of millions of Jewish people.



On 8 May 1945, the victory in Europe was celebrated. But World War II was not yet over. Fighting was still going on in the Pacific between the Allies and the Japanese. As the war with Japan escalated, the Allies needed soldiers who could speak Japanese and Chinese to serve behind enemy lines. Many of the regions seized by the Japanese had large Chinese-speaking populations, including Burma, Sarawak, and Malaysia. Canadian politicians and military officials had tried to discourage Asian Canadians from enlisting. Government officials believed their contribution to the war effort might fuel the demands of their communities for the right to vote.

However, British and Australian forces pressured the Canadian government to recruit Chinese Canadians. An elite commando unit, called Force 136, was formed. Behind enemy lines, these soldiers had to survive not only detection by Japanese forces, but monsoons, mosquitos, and malaria. Their missions sometimes included sabotage operations deep in the jungles. They were also assigned to train and co-ordinate guerrilla units already harassing the Japanese forces.

The first Chinese Canadian to go behind enemy lines was Henry Fung. He was 19 years old. Hundreds of Chinese Canadians took the opportunity to serve their country. In some areas, the Chinese commandos had to protect the surrendering Japanese forces from being massacred by their subject populations. After the war, their contribution could not be ignored. It was a factor in moving the Canadian government to grant Chinese Canadians the right to vote in 1947.

Japanese Canadians faced even greater hostility and distrust. After Pearl Harbor and the fall of Hong Kong, they were seen as potential traitors. The next chapter describes the internment of Japanese Canadians. In spite of these hostile attitudes, many Japanese Canadians wanted to fight for their country because they believed in the war effort and wanted to prove their loyalty to Canada. They had already demonstrated themselves to be excellent soldiers during World War I. In fact, about 35 Japanese Canadians who had joined the armed forces very early in the war were allowed to stay. They fought at Dieppe, in Italy, and on the Rhine.

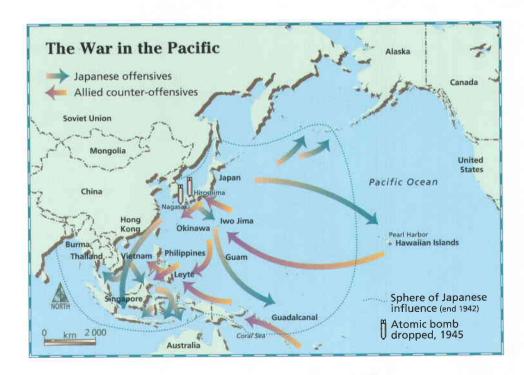
Once again, it took pressure from Canada's Allies for the government to change its discriminatory policy. Translators were needed to interrogate Japanese prisoners in Allied hands. They were also needed to write and broadcast propaganda to isolated Japanese units, and to monitor Japanese radio broadcasts. British military leaders were shocked that Canada was not using reliable, skilled citizens.

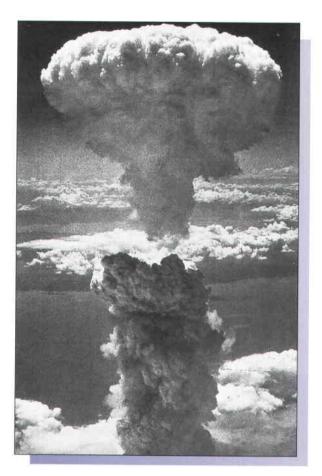
The government changed its policy and allowed Japanese Canadians to join



the Canadian Intelligence Corps. Over 100 attended S-20, a special school operated by the Canadian army. Later members of these units served as occupiers in Japan and helped prepare evidence as part of the War Crimes Investigation Force. They served with distinction. In 1948, Japanese Canadians were also granted the right to vote.

Chinese veterans of World War II. Why do you think the contribution of these soldiers has often been forgotten?





Japan Surrenders

In July 1945, President Truman, who had become president upon Roosevelt's death in April, warned the Japanese to surrender or risk being totally destroyed. The Japanese refused to surrender.

On 6 August 1945, an American bomber appeared in the sky above Hiroshima. The Americans had chosen Hiroshima because it was a major port and an army headquarters. The bomber carried a package about a metre long that would change the nature of war forever. The bomber was the Enola Gay and it carried a single atomic bomb. In a few seconds, the city of Hiroshima was covered by a giant mushroom cloud of smoke and dust. A lightning-like flash covered the whole sky. Sixty per cent of the city's developed area was destroyed by the blast and the resulting fires. Seventy-one thousand people were dead or missing and 68 000 were injured. Nearly all buildings within 1 km of the blast had been flattened.

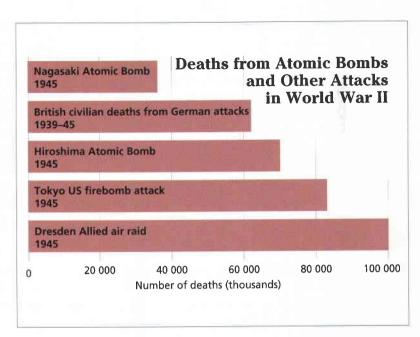
The atomic bomb dropped over Nagasaki, Japan, explodes in a huge mushroom cloud.



The atomic bomb left Nagasaki a wasteland.

Still the Japanese did not surrender. Three days later, a second atomic bomb was dropped on the city of Nagasaki. Another 35 000 Japanese were killed and 60 000 were injured. Within a few days, a new kind of death appeared. Survivors developed fever and burns. Others found their hair falling out, their gums bleeding, and their skin just rotting away. They did not know what was happening to their bodies. Today, we know that these illnesses were caused by massive amounts of radiation.

By then, the Japanese were ready to end the war. Officially, Japan surrendered on 2 September 1945 to General Douglas MacArthur, the American commander in the Pacific. World War II was finally over.



?

Developing Skills: Debating

Do you ever get involved in heated arguments with your family or friends? Are you determined to convince them that your point of view is right? Then you will enjoy debating. A debate is a formal discussion during which points of view for and against an issue are presented. You probably debate more often than you think, although usually informally. Can you remember your last discussion with your parents over whether or not you should be grounded? What arguments were presented on both sides?

You have probably also seen formal debates between politicians or journalists on television. Members of Parliament in government also debate key issues every day they are in session before any bill is passed. Lawyers use debating skills in the courtroom. But in almost any career or occupation, you can benefit from knowing how to prepare an argument and how to present it effectively.

Most formal debates begin with a presentation of the issue in the form of a clear statement. For example, "The United States was not justified in dropping the atomic bomb on Japan." Two teams are then set up. One team, the "pro" side, presents arguments in favour of the statement. The other team, the "con" side, presents arguments against the statement. Counter-arguments are then heard. The goal is to reach a decision on the issue after careful consideration of all arguments and counter-arguments on both sides.

There are many issues related to World War II that have sparked heated debate over the years. In your class, decide on one of the following issues to debate.

- "The raid on Dieppe was a military disaster that should never have been allowed to happen."
- "The United States was not justified in dropping the atomic bomb on Japan."
- "Canadians should be ashamed of our policy toward the recruitment of racial minorities in World War II."
- "J.S. Woodsworth was right to vote against Canadian participation in World War II; it was not our war."

Step | Preparation

- 1. Divide the class into two groups. One group represents the pro side and the other the con side.
- 2. Research your topic thoroughly. Make sure you separate facts from opinions.
- 3. Organize your information so that you have reasoned arguments to support your side in the debate. Support your opinions with facts. Use statements by experts on your topic.
- 4. With your teammates, develop a game plan so that everyone knows his or her role. Remember that every team member must prepare and participate equally.
- 5. Practise your delivery at home or with other members of your team. Have your teammates suggest ways to improve your presentation.
- 6. Try to anticipate the arguments of your opponents. Have some counter-arguments prepared.

Step II Process

7. When you are ready for the debate, choose three people to speak for your side. One student in the class acts as the moderator. The moderator's job is to ensure that the debate flows smoothly and that emotions don't get out of control.

- 8. The speakers for the two teams then present their arguments in turn, beginning, for example, with the leader of the pro team followed by the leader of the con team and so on. Each speaker add arguments for his or her side and attempts to counter the arguments of the previous speaker from the opposing side.
- 9. The concluding speaker for each side should summarize the major arguments for his or her team.

Step III Follow-up

10. After the debate, have a class vote on which team had the most convincing arguments. Vote based on the debaters' skills, not on whether you agree with their position. Follow up with a class discussion on why the arguments were strong or weak. Class members may suggest arguments that were left out in the debate or refute points raised by either team.



Activities

Understand Facts and Concepts

1. Add these new terms to your Factfile.

Blitzkrieg

Battle of Britain

Hong Kong, 1941

Dieppe raid

convoys

Merchant Marine

Operation Husky

Battle of Ortona

D-Day

Manhattan Project

VE Day

Hitler's "final solution"

the Holocaust

atomic bomb

- 2. a) How and why did the Germans attack merchant ships in the Atlantic?
 - b) What measures were used to counter the German threat and how successful were they?
- 3. a) Why was the attack at Dieppe launched?
 - b) What new tactics did the Allies use in the D-Day invasion that were not used at Dieppe?

- 4. Describe the contribution of Canadian forces in the Italian campaign.
- 5. a) Why were Chinese Canadian and Japanese Canadian soldiers needed for the war in the Pacific?
 - b) What obstacles did they face? How were these obstacles overcome?
- 6. What effects did the dropping of the atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki have both on the events of the war and on the people of Japan?

Think and Communicate

- 7. Create a bulletin board display on Canada's involvement in World War II. You could divide your display into Canada's contributions in the air, at sea, and on land. Include photos or illustrations, descriptions, maps, and notes on the major battles and other events. You could also research memoirs or eyewitness reports.
- 8. "The raid on Dieppe should never have been made." Present two arguments to support this statement and two arguments against it. What is your view?
- 9. In World War II, many reporters travelled with the Allied armies. Research and write brief articles as "on-the-spot" reporters. Your articles can be organized into a class newspaper on the war years. Here are some events that you can investigate:
 - a) life as a crew member on a large bomber
 - b) living in a prisoner-of-war camp
 - c) the D-Day invasion
 - d) sailing with a convoy across the North Atlantic
 - e) life as an undercover agent behind enemy lines
 - f) the announcement of the German surrender.
 - g) the discovery of the Nazi death camps
- 10. Put the following events related to the Holocaust in chronological order on a timeline. Where appropriate, make notes on Canada's response to the events. Do further research to add details and first-hand reports.
 - Kristallnacht
 - · Hitler introduces his "final solution"
 - Canadian and other Allied troops begin to liberate the death camps
 - Hitler becomes Chancellor of Germany and begins to place restrictions on Jewish people
 - Jews aboard the St. Louis look for refuge
 - Nuremberg Laws
 - Jews are rounded up and placed in concentration camps
 - Warsaw uprising
 - Nuremberg Trials

Apply Your Knowledge

11. a) Do you agree that some concentration camps should be preserved as a reminder? Why or why not?

- b) What do you think can be done to prevent a disaster such as the Holocaust from ever happening again?
- c) Does Canada share any responsibility for the tragedy of the Holocaust because it was unwilling to take in many Jewish refugees before the war? Explain.
- d) Why do you think some people try to deny that the Holocaust ever happened?
- 12. As in World War I, Canadian artists also went overseas in World War II to record images of the war. Research some Canadian war art. For two pieces of art that most strike you, write your own description of the picture and what it suggests to you. Try to determine what is fact and what is the artist's impression in the paintings.
- 13. Visit a museum display on World War II. You could visit the Canadian War Museum's display on the Internet at www.civilization.ca/cwm. Choose one aspect of the display. Report on why you think the curator of the museum chose to highlight that person, event, or artifact, how it was presented, and what it says to people today.
- 14. Create a web site for people today showing what you think Canadians should most know and remember about World War II. Decide what your site should include and develop an index of topics for a site map. Then discuss pictures and text you would use for each topic. Present your ideas on a poster board.

Get to the Source

15. Read this World War II veteran's reflections.

November 11, Remembrance Day.

It's the day when we stand at attention and go through the formal ritual of 'remembering them'.

For those of us who knew them, it hardly seems necessary. How can you forget? You can't forget a guy called MacLean, a fellow passenger on the boat in which you shipped overseas. He was an air force navigator. You didn't know too much about him, except that he was a married man with three small children and had volunteered for overseas service.

He seemed a smart, stoic young fellow, and you were quite surprised when you went below decks just as the ship was clearing Chebucto Head off Halifax and found him lying in his bunk, crying his eyes out.

You dried his eyes, straightened his tie and dragged him up to the bar, but you can never forget the way he had whispered that he was 'sure he would never see them again'. You kept in touch with him in a careless sort of way when you got to England and not long afterwards you had the news. He had done 10 or 12 'ops' over Germany and had disappeared one night in a burst of flak over the Ruhr.

Source: Kingsley Brown in *True Canadian War Stories*. Ed. Jane Dewar, (Toronto: Lester & Orpen Dennys Limited, 1986).

- a) Can young people ever hope to really understand the nature of World War \mbox{II} ?
- b) What can you do to make sure that Remembrance Day has meaning?
- c) What is the danger in forgetting the realities of World War II?

The War at Home



Stirring Up Support

In 1939, the hardships of World War I and the Great Depression were still fresh in the minds of many Canadians. Canadians stepped up to make a major contribution to the war, but many greeted it with a heavy heart. This war would once again call on Canadians to make major sacrifices. To stir up support for the war effort, the government started a massive poster campaign. One woman recalled how the newspapers were also urging readers to "do their bit" for the war effort.

The newspapers, they were just propaganda sheets. My goodness, on the front pages, war, war, war, and in the insides, how to cook cheaper, how to do Victory Gardens, why we should have car pools, buy Victory Bonds and tell our friends they were traitors if they didn't load up on them too ...

You remember those Sunday sections. They were jammed with war stuff. How to cook cabbage, make cabbage rolls, and then drink the cabbage juice. Did they think we didn't know that stuff, like how to make a dollar do the price of ten? You'd think the idiots in their big offices in Toronto and Ottawa didn't know about the Depression we just went through—10 years of nothing.





- 1. a) What did the newspapers and posters urge Canadians to do for the war effort?
 - b) What was this woman's reaction? Why do you think she reacted this
- 2. How does this quotation show that Canadians' attitudes to war in 1939 were different from attitudes in 1914 at the beginning of World War I?
- 3. Do you think all Canadians felt as this woman did? How would you have reacted to the declaration of war in 1939?

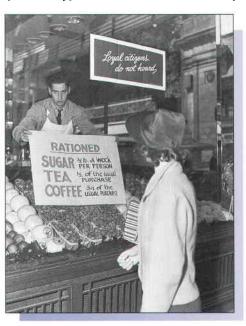
Total War

While war was raging in Europe and the Pacific, important developments were taking place at home in Canada. By 1942, Canada was committed to a policy of "total war." As in World War I, total war meant that all industries, materials, and people were put to work for the war effort. The war affected everyone in Canada.

Rationing

People were encouraged not to hoard (store away) food, and to stretch their sup-

Rationing of goods was common during the war years. All necessary resources were directed toward the war effort.



plies as far as they would go. Some goods became scarce because they were needed for the war. In 1942, the government set up the Wartime Prices and Trade Board (WPTB) to control prices and supervise the distribution of food and other scarce goods. Every man, woman, and child was issued a personal set of ration cards. Ration cards were needed to buy gasoline, butter, sugar, meat, tea, and coffee. Rationing means that the government limited the amount a person could buy, but it was also meant to ensure that everyone got a fair share of scarce goods.

Rubber tires, tubes, and antifreeze were very scarce. A family was limited to 545 litres of gasoline a year for its car. Some people simply put their cars up on blocks during the war. The government also set limits on the production of materials that were not considered essential to the war effort. Liquor and silk stockings, for example, became luxury items. Silk stockings were hard to find because the silk was needed to make parachutes. For most people in Canada, rationing caused little real hardship. Many had learned to live with shortages during the Depression. They also realized that they were lucky not to be in Europe where the real war was being fought, and where the hardship was much worse.

People tried to "do their bit." In many kitchens, bacon fat and bones were saved to provide glycerine for explosives and glue for aircraft. People also gave up buying new aluminum pots and pans and new stoves so that more airplanes could be built. Children and teens became scrap gatherers. Scrap metal, rags, paper, rubber, foil, and wire coat hangers—anything that could be salvaged for the war effort was collected. Posters urged the whole family to help win the war.

As during World War I, people from many different ethnocultural and racial communities contributed to the war effort at home. They bought Victory Bonds and organized fund raising events. Chinese Canadians, for example, raised \$4 million in war relief funds and sent \$5 million to support the war effort in China. China and Canada were allies in the war against Japan. Many Polish scientists, engineers, technicians, and skilled workers who escaped their homeland after the Nazi invasion came to Canada. About 800 arrived between 1941 and 1942. Their expertise helped to change Canada's industries to produce aircraft, armaments, and other war supplies. These are just two examples of communities that made contributions.

Government and the Economy

In 1939, Canada was still in the grip of the Great Depression. Half a million people were unemployed and a million Canadians were still receiving social assistance. Six months after the war began, there was a labour *shortage* in Canada. World War II ended the Depression, provided Canadians with jobs, and brought an economic boom.

C. D. Howe, Minister of Munitions and Supply, quickly organized Canada's war

economy. Twenty-eight Crown (government-owned) companies were created to produce everything from rubber to aircraft, explosives to uranium. Howe convinced a number of businesspeople and industrialists to work for his ministry for a dollar a year. They produced needed war supplies and became known as "Howe's boys." As Howe took more and more control over the Canadian economy, he became known as "Minister of Everything." Howe transformed Canada's economy, but he also had greater control over the lives of workers and businesspeople than any one person had ever had before.

Before the war, Canada was mainly a supplier of raw materials such as fish, wheat, and metal ores. During the war, Canada became an industrial power. Canadian munitions factories turned out bombs, shells, and bullets for small arms. Shipyards worked full blast building cargo ships, trawlers, mine sweepers, and landing craft. Shipbuilding became the second largest employer in the country. Aircraft manufacturers, such as De Havilland, produced everything from training planes to fighting craft.

In 1942, the government turned all automobile plants over to the production of war vehicles. The plants produced trucks, jeeps, Bren gun carriers, and artillery tractors. It has been calculated that half of the vehicles used by the British in the North African campaign were stamped "Made in Canada." The Nazi general Rommel gave orders to his troops to capture Canadian-made jeeps because they did not get stuck in the sand as the German ones did. Other industries were also switched over to produce war materials.

All kinds of military vehicles, tanks, radar equipment, and penicillin were produced in large amounts. Steel output doubled, while aluminum production increased six times. Canadian farms and

The Canadian Car and Foundry plant in Amherst, Nova Scotia, was converted to producing aircraft in 1942. Many Canadian plants were turned over to producing munitions and other supplies for the war.



Canada's Unemployment Rate

	8-2
1939	11.4 %
1940	9.2
1941	4.4
1942	3.0
1943	1.7
1944	1.4
1945	1.6

Source: Dominion Bureau of Statistics.

fisheries provided astonishingly large amounts of wheat, flour, cheese, canned salmon, fish oil, bacon, ham, canned meat, and dried eggs for Britain and the Allies. Canadian industries also produced engines, synthetic rubber, electronic equipment, and other goods they had not manufactured before. Many of these industries remained an important part of the Canadian economy after the war.

War Productions 19141918 \$1 002 672 413 1941 \$1 200 000 000 1942 \$2 600 000 000 1943 \$3 700 000 000

Other Government Actions

Government also took a greater role in providing social support, such as unemployment insurance, for Canadians. After 10 years of Depression and six years of war, many Canadians believed they should be ensured of a better life after the war. The war had clearly demonstrated the power of government action. The CCF also convinced

many Canadians that government action could improve the lives of Canadians.

In 1940, the government passed the Unemployment Insurance Act (today called employment insurance). Both workers and employers contributed money to the program. Now when they were unemployed, workers could collect insurance.

In 1944, the government introduced Family Allowance, and the first "baby bonus" cheques were mailed the following year. Mothers now had more funds to help take care of their children's needs. Due to a wartime housing shortage, the government also helped reduce the cost of mortgages and built pre-fabricated homes in many cities. Many of these houses are still there today. Though they were meant to be temporary, they were very sturdily built. This greater role for government would continue for decades after the war.

Canadian-American Relations

As the war progressed, Canada developed closer ties with the United States. Even before the outbreak of hostilities, President Roosevelt signalled his country's interest in Canada. He declared at Kingston, Ontario, in 1938 that his nation "would not stand idly by if domination of Canadian soil [was] threatened by any other [than the British] empire." Although Americans were neutral until 1941, much was done to assist Canada and Britain before the US entered the war.

- 1940 Ogdensburg Agreement. This Agreement provided for a Canadian-American Permanent Joint Board on Defence. The Board aimed to improve the defence of both countries.
- 1941 Lend-Lease Act. This Act made it easier for Britain to buy American military supplies while the United States was still neutral. It allowed the United

States to increase production of war materials and to send them to any country if it was in American interests to do so. Britain was also allowed to postpone payments on the goods.

- 1941 Hyde Park Agreement. Since Britain could easily buy war materials from the United States after the Lend-Lease Act, Britain would buy less from Canada. The Hyde Park Agreement ensured that the United States would buy more war supplies from Canada. It also stated that Britain could buy Canadian war materials under the Lend-Lease Act and not have to pay upfront. With the Hyde Park Agreement, the war economy was clearly becoming more continental in scope.
- 1942-43 Alaska Highway. To protect against Japanese attack, this project was financed and built almost entirely by Americans. The highway, however, crossed 2500 km of Canadian soil from Dawson Creek, British Columbia to Fairbanks, Alaska. This remote area of Canada almost became an American state during the construction period. A pipeline was also built.

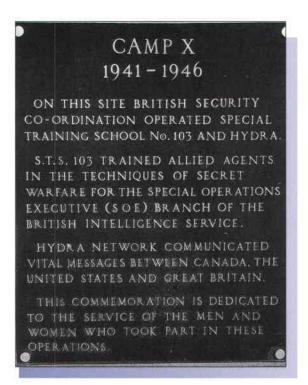
Canadians and Americans also cooperated in military operations. In Italy, they created a joint elite commando force. When the war ended, Canada's focus had permanently shifted away from Great Britain and closer to the United States.



There was another example of co-operation between British, Canadians, and Americans during the war—Camp X. From 1941 to 1944, **Camp X**, or Special Training School #103, was one of the most top-secret projects of the war. What seemed like a deserted farm on the shores of Lake Ontario near Oshawa was actually the first wartime spy training camp in North



Netsurfer
For some first person accounts
of the war at home and
overseas visit
http://sites.netscape.net/
appdad/ww2.html



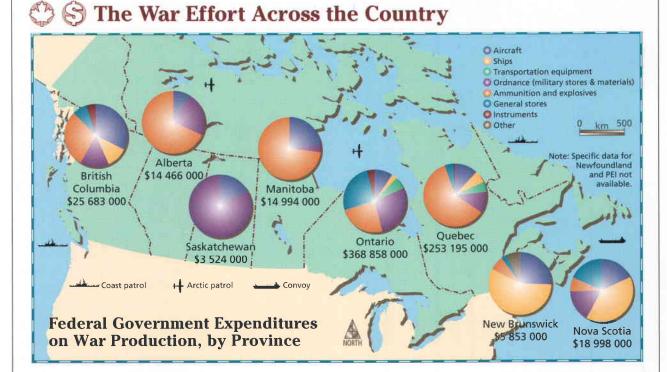
America. Its purpose was to train Allied agents in the techniques of secret warfare for the Special Operations Branch of the British Secret Intelligence Service. The Camp was also established to train Americans in the art of secret warfare. It opened just a few days after the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor. The site in southern Ontario was chosen for its easy access to the United States. The project is considered by some to be a forerunner of the US Central Intelligence Agency (CIA).

The Camp's director was a Canadian, William Stephenson (code name "Intrepid"). Though most of the training officers were British, many Canadians were recruited to work and train at Camp X. Britain, the United States, and Canada all used the Camp to train secret agents in undercover work. Some trainers included Iroquois (Haudenosaunee), who taught agents in the skills of hiding in forested areas and fields. The camp trained both



men and women. Among those trained at Camp X were

- secret agents and spies for enemy-occupied Europe. Technicians provided secret agents with false passports and other documents for use behind enemy lines. Costume experts produced European-style wartime clothing, eyeglasses, soap and toothpaste, and battered suitcases. In case of arrest or interrogation, everything an agent carried had to look right to enemy eyes.
- French-speaking Canadians for undercover work in France. These agents were parachuted into Nazi-occupied France to blend in with the local population. They trained French Resistance workers in the use of weapons and sabotage. They also set up important Resistance networks and helped to capture a number of Nazi collaborators.
- Yugoslav Canadians. These agents were sent into their occupied homeland, where they destroyed German railway tracks, trains, roads, and power lines. Their goal was to strike any blow they could at the Nazi war machine. When the agents cut telephone wires, they were trained to take the wire with them so that the lines could not easily be restored.



British Columbia

The products of BC's forests and rivers were turned to the war effort. The entire 1942 salmon catch was shipped to Britain. Pacific ports vied with Atlantic ports in shipbuilding.

The Pacific Coast Militia Rangers was formed when Japan entered the war. Japanese forces took the Aleutian Islands off Alaska in 1942, but were later pushed out by a joint Canadian-American force. No further attacks were made on the West Coast.

The Prairies

Industries on the Prairies were turning out guns, locomotives, ammunition, and uniforms. Farmers were harvesting bumper crops of wheat and producing new food goods such as pork, beef, dairy products, flax, and oil seeds to meet the demand. Many world-famous pilots of the RAF and the RCAF were trained on the Prairies.

Ontario

Ontario's car and farm implement factories were manufacturing armoured vehicles, guns, and planes for the war. Many new plants were also established and were producing shells, explosives, and small arms.

Ouebec

Quebec produced 75 per cent of the asbestos used by the Allies during the war. The province was a new source of strategic war

metals and minerals. Aircraft, tanks, guns, shells, warships, and merchant vessels were produced in its industrial centres.

Maritimes

Thirteen thousand vessels carrying 70 million tonnes of cargo sailed from Canada's eastern ports to Britain in 1943. Ninetynine per cent of this tonnage reached Britain even though hundreds of ships were destroyed by German U-boats. Some U-boats made it up the St. Lawrence River.

Halifax was Canada's major shipping and naval centre during the war. Ships and soldiers from all parts of the Commonwealth stopped at Halifax. Convoys of ships set out with vital war materials across the Atlantic.

Newfoundland and Labrador

During World War II, Newfoundland and Labrador were not part of Canada. The region was being run for a time by a British commission because of its financial problems during the Depression. However, large numbers of Newfoundlanders joined the Canadian or British forces. Important American and Allied air bases were located in Newfoundland and many Newfoundlanders worked on the bases to keep the planes flying. The Royal Navy bases on the island were crucial in the defence of the North Atlantic and in keeping the supply lines open. Many Newfoundlanders experienced at sea helped to keep the convoys of ships sailing to Britain.

- spy catchers for undercover work in Canada and the United States. Some agents at Camp X were instructed in how to look for subversive activities on the home front. They reported to the RCMP on possible Nazi or Japanese spies.
- espionage and intelligence gatherers. Some agents gathered intelligence in Central and South America. They intercepted, decoded, recoded, and then transmitted vital messages back to North America. Monitoring Nazi submarine radio signals helped to pinpoint the exact location of enemy submarines in the Atlantic. Historians credit this communications success with helping to win the Battle of the Atlantic.
- radio operators to transmit sensitive, topsecret information. At Camp X, there was a curious looking rectangular building with windows high above the ground. There was only one way in and

out. This building housed Hydra, the top-secret communications network. Giant antennae for receiving and sending radio messages were in the surrounding fields. Hydra acted as the clearing house for Top Priority information from Allied embassies around the world. Hundreds of amateur radio "ham" operators were recruited in Canada for jobs at Camp X. They had to be fluent in transmitting and receiving Morse code. Their work was so secret that workers at the camp never knew each other's last names.

Some military historians believe that the training done at Camp X helped to shorten the war and perhaps saved thousands of lives. For example, just before D-Day, the Germans tried to rush large numbers of reinforcements into Normandy when they realized the Allied invasion was coming there. All along the route, French-

For these Vancouver students, the threat of the war was very real as Japanese submarines were sailing off Canada's West Coast. The students went through air raid drills and strapped on gas masks in preparation for a gas attack.



Canadian saboteurs trained at Camp X were at work. They blew up bridges and railway lines, delaying the German advance. It took the German army three weeks to complete the repairs. By the time German reinforcements reached Normandy, it was too late to stop the Allied invasion.

Conscription Again!

Conscription raised its ugly head again in World War II. Prime Minister Mackenzie King was determined that this time conscription would not tear the country apart as it had during World War I.

At the beginning of the war, Mackenzie King had promised that no one would be forced to fight overseas. The Liberals made this pledge primarily to French Canadians. They were determined to avoid the split between French and English Canadians that had occurred in 1917.

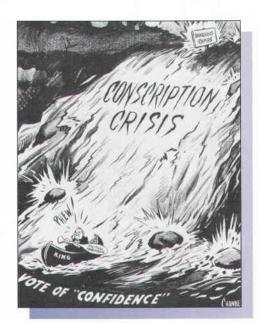
In 1940, the National Resources Mobilization Act required that all adult males register for national service, but only within Canada. No one would be forced to fight overseas. The Act drew some protest, especially from French Canadians who wanted no part of this European war or any form of conscription. Montreal Mayor Camillien Houde encouraged people not to register. The federal government suspended his mayoralty and he was interned for most of the war.

However, as the war went on and Hitler's forces scored major victories, the pressure to send more soldiers mounted. Prime Minister King found himself in a corner. Many English Canadians began to call for compulsory military service. Britain had introduced conscription from the start of the war. When the United States entered the war, it too brought in full conscription. Many Canadians whose relatives were voluntarily fighting overseas resent-

ed the fact that some Canadians were escaping wartime service.

In 1942, King decided to hold a plebiscite. In a **plebiscite**, all citizens have a direct vote on an issue of major national importance. Canadians were asked if they were in favour of releasing the government from its pledge that it would not introduce conscription for overseas service. Nine of the ten provinces answered with an overwhelming 80 per cent "Yes." But 72 per cent in the province of Quebec said "No." Some French Canadians threw their support behind the Bloc Populaire, a new political movement that was organized to fight conscription and defend provincial rights.

English Canadians were reassured by the vote. To satisfy French Canadians, Mackenzie King emphasized that conscription was not yet necessary. He promised that it would be introduced only as a last resort. His famous statement about the policy was purposefully vague. It could be taken favourably by either side. King said, "Not necessarily conscription, but conscription if necessary."



How does this cartoon depict Prime Minister King's dilemma over conscription?



Netsurfer

For more on posters and propaganda during World War II, visit http://web.arts.ubc.ca/history/ww2prop

By 1944, the pressure to introduce conscription had increased even further. The army was desperately short of troops. Soldiers who had been wounded two or three times were being sent back to the front lines. King turned to Louis St. Laurent, the leading cabinet minister from Quebec. With St. Laurent's co-operation, the prime minister announced that a total of 16 000 conscripted soldiers would be sent overseas, but no more for the time being.

The motion to send 16 000 conscripts overseas passed in the House of Commons by a majority vote of 143 to 70. Only one minister from Quebec resigned from the cabinet. He protested that the government had broken its pledge to French

Canadians. There was some rioting in Quebec City and Montreal. However, the response from French Canadians was not nearly as violent as it had been in 1917.

Mackenzie King had won a victory for unity. Most French Canadians acknowledged that King had tried to prevent conscription. He had paid attention to French Canadian opinion. Although many French Canadians were unhappy about conscription, they gave Mackenzie King credit for doing his best.

Mackenzie King's conscription policy was probably one of his greatest political achievements. He had remembered and learned from the tragic experience of 1917. This time conscription did not tear apart the Liberal party or the country.

?

Developing Skills: Analyzing Bias in Propaganda

Propaganda is the spreading of particular ideas and beliefs to influence people's thoughts and feelings, and to make them act in a particular way. During World War II, both sides used propaganda as part of their military strategy. It was often called "psychological warfare." For the people at home, propaganda was used to instill pride and confidence in the country, to inspire sacrifice, and to show the consequences of defeat. Propaganda also boosted military morale. It convinced soldiers that though they may have lost the battle, the war was being won.

In Canada, the Wartime Information Board was responsible for propaganda. Canadian institutions such as the CBC and the National Film Board (NFB) were active in producing propaganda for the Allied war effort. In fact, the NFB produced two awardwinning series on the war effort, Canada Carries On and The World in Action. These played regularly in movie theatres across the country.

The propaganda generally appealed to people's emotions. Symbols, such as the flag, and

images of the family, the homeland, and the evil nature of the enemy were often used to influence people's behaviour. It was believed that a picture was worth a thousand words. Therefore, posters were a popular form of propaganda.

Wartime propaganda was aimed at four main targets: the enemy, the Allies, neutral countries, and the home front. For each of these targets, a specific message was emphasized.

The chart on the following page has six questions to ask when analyzing any examples of wartime propaganda. The answers are based on the sample poster.

Target	Message
The enemy	Eventual defeat
The Allies	Unity, loyalty, and victory
Neutral countries	The rightness of the cause countries
Home front	The need for effort and sacrifice to be victorious

Sample Poster

(analyzed in chart below)



Try It!

- 1. Using the model, analyze the posters below.
- 2. Think of examples of propaganda today. Who are the targets and what are the messages?
- 3. Do you think propaganda should be used in wartime? Why or why not?
- 4. In groups, make propaganda posters. Here are some target suggestions.
- Allies—Britain or France
- neutrals—the United States before 1941
- the home front—the conscription issue





Question	Answer
1. Who is the intended target?	men and women on the streets, therefore the target is the home front
2. Who is the sender of the message?	probably the government, who wants everyone on the home front to get this message
3. What is the message of the poster?	careless talk could be overheard by enemy spies and could end up costing the lives of our soldiers or civilians
4. What is the purpose of the poster?	to warn the general population to be very careful in any conversation because they may be giving away information to the enemy
5. How is the message relayed ?	the face of the dreaded enemy is skillfully drawn as a shadow on the wall with the thoughts of sabotage, and at the same time the viewer is reminded that the walls have ears
6. What is the effect of the poster?	clever, ominous; the conversation on the street seems harmless but the dominant image on the wall and several other small symbols contribute to the message that the walls have the ears of the enemy and careless talk can cost lives

Even comic books had a role to play in the propaganda effort.

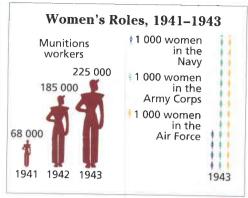
Restrictions on spending for non-essential foreign materials had dried up the supply of American comic books. Canadian artists and publishers filled the void with a new wave of Canadian action heroes.



- 1. How is the enemy represented on this comic book cover?
- 2. How are the heroes depicted?
- 3. How effective do you think these comic books would be in influencing the ideas of young people during the war?
- 4. These Canadian comic books were no longer produced after wartime restrictions ended in 1945. A new wave of American comics flowed into Canada. What influence do you think American comic books have had on Canadian young people?

New Roles for Women

In World War I, women had served as nurses behind the front lines and made a major contribution to the war industry at home. In World War II, they again did the same, but they also became an active part of the armed forces for the first time. Women pushed to be accepted into official military service. In 1941, the Canadian army, air force, and navy each created a women's division—the Canadian Women's Army Corps (CWAC), the Canadian Women's Auxiliary Air Force



(CWAAF), and the Women's Royal Canadian Naval Service (WRCNS). By the end of the war, Canadian women in uniform numbered 50 000. Another 4500 women were in the medical services.

Women were not sent into front-line combat, but they did essential work behind the lines. Some worked as radio operators, guiding back planes and ships from battle missions. Others were mechanics, welders, armourers, or workers in armed forces headquarters. In first-aid posts and in hospitals in Europe and Britain, nurses and Red Cross workers treated the wounded and dying.

A woman who served near the front recalled her wartime experiences:

I was a Red Cross worker. We had to do all we could to help. Some men were cheery, asking for a cigarette, joking. Some were in shock through loss of blood and just torn-up bodies, and some of these were the ones who were dying. You got to know. They had this look about them, a whiteness, a look in their eyes. Some would die while you sat beside them. One did once, a young boy from Ontario, and he died as I was reading the last letter he got from his mother. He let out this kind of sigh and his head fell down a bit and I knew he was gone. He had a lot of steel in his chest. I suppose he never had much of a chance.

It was a time when you could work twelve hours a day and another four if you wanted to, and you'd crawl into the tent just dead. The bombing didn't bother us. The shelling. Sometimes it sounded like thunder rolling across the lake, just like at home at the cottage.

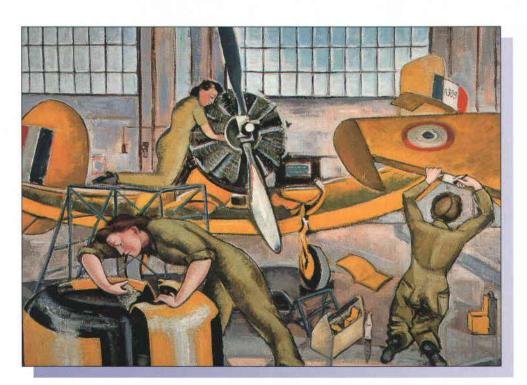
Women also played a vital role in war industries at home. The war once again proved that women could perform jobs in industries and services as well as men. In 1939, there were 638 000 women in the workforce in Canada. By 1944, there were 1 077 000. Traditionally, only unmarried women worked. But during World War II, it became patriotic for all women to help "fight Hitler at home."

Women in overalls and a bandana on posters everywhere became a symbol of service to Canada. By the thousands, women operated riveting machines in shipyards, welded parts in airplane factories, and worked on assembly lines in



munitions plants. In rural areas, they ran farms while men were away fighting. Jobs that had traditionally been done by men were now done effectively by women. These included work in lumber mills and as streetcar and bus drivers.

Private Roy; Canadian Women's Army Corps by Canadian war artist Molly Lamb Bobak. Women had new roles in the armed forces during World War II.



This painting by
Canadian artist
Paraskeva Clark
entitled Maintenance
Jobs in the Hangar
shows one aspect of
women's contribution
to the war effort
and symbolizes a
change in women's
traditional roles.

In Ontario and Ouebec, the government established child care centres for women working in war industries. Married women were temporarily allowed to earn more money without their husbands having to pay higher income tax. Salaries for women rose significantly during this time. Women in the aircraft industry received an average weekly wage of \$31.00. This was more than double what women had earned before the war.

Many women who could not serve in uniform or work in war industries contributed as volunteers. They packed parcels for prisoners of war and knitted sweaters and socks for the fighting soldiers overseas. They worked in service clubs and canteens serving coffee and sandwiches to Canadians in uniform and Allied soldiers training in Canada.

In some ways, women's contributions to the labour force during World War II helped to expand the traditional roles of women in Canadian society. But for many women the new freedoms and opportunities were only temporary. Following the war, women often lost their jobs. Men returned from the war and were given their old jobs back. The tax breaks given to married women earning a wage were eliminated. The government-sponsored child care centres were discontinued. The women's service corps were disbanded. Women were expected to return to working at home or to traditional female occupations such as teaching, nursing, or domestic service.





😭 🚯 "Enemy Aliens"

One of the most significant events in the war at home was the internment of Japanese Canadians and other "enemy aliens." The War Measures Act gave the government sweeping powers to determine who was loyal and who was not. If you were

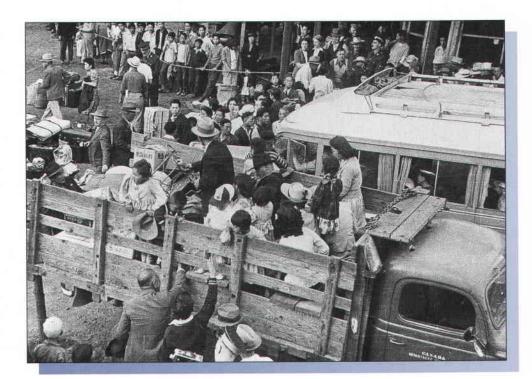
judged a security risk, you and your family could be sent away to an internment camp. Your property was disposed of. At the outset of the war, some German and Italian Canadians were rounded up for internment. Some refugees fleeing Nazi persecution, including Jews, found themselves interned as well. However, the most massive internment program involved Japanese Canadians on the West Coast.

Internment of Japanese Canadians

Shock and anger gripped many Canadians when they heard that the Japanese had attacked Pearl Harbor. That same night the Royal Canadian Mounted Police swept through the Japanese community in British Columbia and began to make arrests. In the next few days, 38 Japanese Canadians judged to be "dangerous individuals" and "troublemakers" were rounded up.

In the months that followed, all Japanese nationals (people born in Japan but living in Canada) and Canadian citizens of Japanese descent were imprisoned under the War Measures Act. This act gave the Canadian cabinet the power to make any decisions during the emergency of wartime without debate in the House of Commons. Japanese were taken from their homes, packed into trains, and sent to internment camps in the interior of British Columbia. Some men were assigned to work on road construction in northern British Columbia and Ontario. Others were used as farm labourers in the sugar beet fields of Alberta and Manitoba. Men who resisted were separated from their families and sent to a prisoner-of-war camp in Angler, Ontario.

At first, only Japanese men without Canadian citizenship were held. But later it did not seem to matter whether the people were born in Japan or Canada. In fact,



Japanese Canadians are rounded up and sent to internment camps.

more than 14 000 were second-generation Japanese Canadians born in this country. Another 3000 were Japanese who had become Canadian citizens. It didn't seem to matter that 200 Japanese Canadians had fought in the Canadian army in World War I. Canada and Japan were at war, and all Japanese Canadians were considered to be potentially dangerous. One Japanese Canadian woman told how on the day the war broke out a man approached her on the street and spat in her face.

Most people of Japanese descent in Canada lived in British Columbia. The first Japanese immigrants had come to work on the railroads, in mines, and in lumber camps in the late 1800s and early 1900s. Later, they established permanent homes and businesses in Canada. Many owned small boats and fished for salmon along the British Columbia coast. Others worked in fish canneries or owned small plots of land where they grew fruit and vegetables for the Vancouver market. Others owned

shops, restaurants, and other small businesses. During their internment, their property was taken away and their businesses were ruined.

Japanese in the fishing industry were the first group to be evacuated. There were rumours that Canada would be attacked at any minute and that the Japanese were navy officers sent to spy on British Columbia waters. About 1200 fishing boats belonging to Japanese Canadians were seized by the Canadian government. Their owners were sent to the interior of British Columbia. One person remembered:

To this day I don't know what they thought about these small fishing boats. They were our living. They were small boats made of wood. We had no radar, no radio, no echo sounder. Just tiny little vessels with their chuggy little motors and space for the fish we caught ... And they said we were charting the coast and waterways ... Why, we could go into

Vancouver any time and buy British Admiralty charts of every single kilometre of the coast. But try and convince people that we were not spies, that we were not spying ... But oh no, no way.

The Canadian navy saw no further security problem once Japanese Canadians had been removed from the coast. Still, demands continued for the internment of all Japanese Canadians. People were nervous. Japanese forces had swept across the Pacific, occupying Indonesia, parts of China, the Philippines, Malaya, Burma, and Singapore. People feared British Columbia might be next. Feelings against Japanese Canadians ran high.

In February 1942, the Canadian government decided to move all Japanese Canadians away from the coast to inland centres. The government said there were two reasons for doing this: to prevent spying which could lead to an enemy invasion, and to protect Japanese Canadians from being harmed in anti-Japanese riots.

Most Japanese Canadians were sent on special trains to six ghost towns in the interior of British Columbia. They were allowed to take 68 kg of clothing, bedding. and cooking utensils for each adult. They were housed in crude huts. Two bedrooms and a kitchen had to be shared by two families. Until 1943, there was no electricity or running water. Living conditions were so bad that food packages from Japan were sent through the Red Cross to interned Canadians in British Columbia. In these remote communities, they were kept under constant surveillance by the RCMP. World War I veterans were paid to watch over the settlements and report anything out of the ordinary.

When Japan surrendered, the Canadian government considered sending all Japanese Canadians to Japan. This would have included many who had been born

in Canada and who had never been to Japan. The deportation never took place. A number of Canadian citizens protested that this would be dishonourable and unfair to the Japanese Canadians. However, about 4000 returned to Japan in 1946.

Those who remained in Canada did not have an easy time in the post-war years. Only a few went back to British Columbia. Instead, they spread out across the country. Citizens of Japanese descent were not given the right to vote in federal elections until June 1948. They did not have the right to vote in British Columbia elections until 1949.

After the war, many Japanese Canadians were bitter when they found out that their possessions had been sold, often at a fraction of their value. They had been told the government would hold their belongings in trust.

When we left we had to turn over our property to the **Custodian of Enemy Property** for safekeeping. Now that meant to us that when the war business was over we'd get our property back.

It was a terrible shock when we learned that this safekeeping business meant nothing, that all of our stuff had been sold at auction. People would get a cheque or a credit saying so much was due to them, but there were some people who got no money at all. Now that wasn't right. That safekeeping thing caused a lot of bitterness. People would say, "That's all we had and now we've got nothing." It made a lot of people pretty mad. First they take us from our homes and stick us in a dump, and now this.

One family's house sold for \$50.00 at a government auction, and its contents for \$8.50. One fishing boat sold for \$150, a fraction of what it was worth. Most people felt that they received from the govern-

ment between 5 and 10 per cent of the real value of their property and possessions.

In 1946, a **Japanese Property Claims Commission** was set up by the Canadian government. It was to review the claims of those who felt they had not been

treated fairly. Although in some cases additional money was made available, it never fully compensated for what had been lost. It was not until 1988 that the Canadian government formally apologized to Japanese Canadians and offered \$20 000 to every survivor of the internment.

0 6 ArtsTalk





Joy Kogawa

Joy Kogawa was six years old when her family was evacuated from their home in British Columbia and sent to an internment camp. She still has memories of the shack she and her family shared in Coaldale, Alberta. For years afterward while she was growing up, Joy Kogawa did not want to acknowledge her Japanese heritage. "In my conscious mind I did not identify with 'them': the 'other,' the 'slanteyed,' 'the yellow peril,' ... They were the enemy and I was not them." Later, Joy Kogawa published books based on the Japanese experience in internment camps. These books include *Obasan, Naomi's Road,* and *Itsuka*. Her writing was influential in moving the Canadian government to formally apologize to Japanese Canadians and provide compensation for their treatment during World War II. Joy Kogawa has also been recognized with an Order of Canada.

WHAT DO I REMEMBER OF THE EVACUATION?

What do I remember of the evacuation? I remember my father telling Tim and me About the mountains and the train And the excitement of going on a trip. What do I remember of the evacuation? I remember my mother wrapping A blanket around me and my Pretending to fall asleep so she would be happy Though I was so excited I couldn't sleep (I hear there were people herded Into the Hastings Park like cattle. Families were made to move in two hours Abandoning everything, leaving pets And possessions at gun point. I hear families were broken up Men were forced to work. I heard It whispered late at night That there was suffering) and

I missed my dolls. What do I remember of the evacuation? I remember Miss Foster and Miss Tucker Who still live in Vancouver And who did what they could And loved the children and who gave me A puzzle to play with on the train. And I remember the mountains and I was Six years old and I swear I saw a giant Gulliver of Gulliver's Travels scanning the horizon And when I told my mother she believed it too And I remember how careful my parents were Not to bruise us with bitterness And I remember the puzzle of Lorraine Life Who said "Don't insult me" when I Proudly wrote my name in Japanese And Tim flew the Union Jack When the war was over but Lorraine And her friends spat on us anyway And I prayed to the God who loves All the children in his sight That I might be white.

Source: Joy Kogawa, *A Choice of Dreams* (Toronto: McClelland & Stewart, 1974), pp. 54-55.

- 1. Note three memories the little girl kept of the evacuation.
- 2. What is the meaning of the phrase "to bruise us with bitterness?"
- 3. Outline your personal reaction to the poem.
- 4. Can children ever forget difficult memories?



In 1939, Canada was unprepared for war. Nevertheless, the country made a vital contribution to the war effort. By 1945, Canada emerged with an important place in world affairs. Canada made a major contribution in people, munitions, food supplies, and raw materials. In 1939, Canada's

three military services had just over 10 000 people. By 1945, over 1 million Canadians had worn a uniform, and 50 000 were women. Fatal casualties numbered 22 964 for the army, 17 047 for the air force, and 1981 for the navy. In a nation with a population of just over 11 million at the end of the war, these figures represent a great loss.

In terms of war production, Canadians worked miracles. Starting from almost

nothing, Canadian plants turned out 800 000 motor vehicles, 16 000 aircraft, 900 000 rifles, 200 000 machine guns, 6500 tanks, over 400 cargo vessels, and nearly 500 escort vessels and mine sweepers.

Economic Growth

As in World War I, Canada's economy was strengthened by the war. In 1939, Canada still suffered the effects of the Depression. Unemployment was widespread and the economy was just beginning to recover. By 1945, the Canadian economy was booming. The gross national production of goods tripled. Materials such as asbestos, aluminum, coal, manganese, chemicals, and paper all contributed to the war effort and Canada's industries expanded rapidly. The increased production of vital agricultural goods such as wheat, flour, bacon, ham, eggs, canned meat, and fish also contributed to the economic boom.

International Status

On the world stage, Canada gained new status and recognition. It was clear the country could not retreat into the isolationist "fireproof" house it had dreamed of before 1939. Canada was prepared to accept new responsibilities in maintaining world peace. The nation became one of the founding members of the United Nations and was particularly active in its early years. In a very real sense, Canada grew up as a result of the war. The war had helped Canada establish its place as an important "middle power" among nations.

The liberation of the death camps also made clear what the refusal to accept Jewish refugees before the war had meant. Although slow to change, Canada eventually took in a higher percentage of Holocaust survivors relative to its population than any other nation. Canada was moving toward its role as a defender of human rights in the international arena. One Canadian, Edgar Bronfman, proved to be



very effective in getting back the wealth that had been looted from the families of Holocaust victims. Canada also slowly evolved a more open policy toward refugees.

Social Changes

The war increased the roles and expectations of women. Women still did not have equality with men, but they had gained more confidence in their goals. Canadians' attitudes to people of different racial and ethnocultural communities was tested during the war. Gradually, Canadians began to draw together to create a more open, multicultural society than they had ever envisaged before. French-English relations were strained, but not yet broken.

Before World War II, most politicians felt government should interfere as little as possible in the lives of its citizens. Little was done to ease the pain of Canadians during the 10 lost years of the Depression. However, the war had demonstrated the power of an active government in harnessing the might of the nation. Perhaps success on the battlefield could be extended to the political, economic, and social front. Certainly the post-war years were an era of increasing government involvement in social support for Canadians. The fabric of a welfare state was woven. Canada had been transformed by the war years.

Prime Minister
Mackenzie King sits
with President
Roosevelt of the
United States, Prime
Minister Churchill of
Britain, and British
envoy Athlone in
Quebec. Canada
emerged from World
War II as a significant
middle power.

Activities

Understand Facts and Concepts

1. Add these new terms to your Factfile.

total war
Wartime Prices and Trade Board
ration cards
Ogdensburg Agreement
Lend-Lease Act
Hyde Park Agreement
Camp X

conscription plebiscite
War Measures Act
internment camp
Custodian of Enemy Property
Japanese Property Claims Commission
middle power

- 2. Describe how people and families at home contributed to the war effort.
- 3. Canada's accomplishments in turning its industries to wartime production during World War II has been called "an industrial miracle." Provide three points of evidence to support this statement.
- 4. Explain each of the following in a sentence.
 - a) why many English Canadians wanted to have compulsory military service during World War II.
 - b) why many French Canadians did not want to have compulsory military service during World War II.
 - c) why the Liberals did not want to introduce conscription.
 - d) what the plebiscite told the government.
 - e) what the government decided to do about conscription in 1944.
- 5. Describe the role of women in World War II.
- 6. Where were most people of Japanese descent living in Canada in 1941? What occupations did they hold? Describe what happened to them and their property after Japan bombed Pearl Harbor.

Think and Communicate

- 7. a) Rationing is often introduced in times of war or severe economic hardship. Make a list of the "luxury" items you would have to give up if Canada were at war. Do you think it would be easier or more difficult for you to give up these goods than it was for Canadians in World War II? Why or why not?
 - b) Which household items do you think you would be able to reuse or recycle? Explain.
 - c) If your family's food needs had to be reduced to a minimum, how much bread, milk, sugar, flour, apples, potatoes or rice, meat, and cereal do you think your family would need for one week? Create ration cards showing the minimum amounts. Explain your decisions.

8. Twice in the twentieth century the issue of conscription nearly tore the Canadian nation apart. Use an organizer like the one below to compare the two situations. Account for the different outcome in 1944.

Conscription Issue	World War I	World War II	
Party that introduced conscription			
Reasons for introducing conscription			
Groups who supported conscription			
Groups who opposed conscription			
How the decision was reached			
Efforts to accommodate opposition of French Canadians			
Reaction in Quebec			
Effects of decision on national unity			

- 9. a) What were the effects of the war effort on women's roles in society?
 - b) How were these roles similar to or different from roles women played in World War I?
 - c) What changes came about at the end of the war? Did these changes improve or hinder women's struggle for equality?
- 10. Role play a meeting in which some or all of the following people discuss whether or not Japanese Canadians should be interned during World War II.
 - a) Prime Minister Mackenzie King
 - b) an officer of the RCMP
 - c) a British Columbia politician
 - d) a Canadian-born leader of the Japanese community
 - e) a person with a son in a Japanese prisoner-of-war camp overseas
 - f) a citizen of British Columbia fearful of a Japanese attack

Apply Your Knowledge

- 11. a) People said that Canada had developed as a nation by the end of World War II. What did they mean?
 - b) Are there any areas in which you think Canada still had some "growing up" to do? Explain.
- 12. a) During the war the government established a daycare program for children whose mothers were working in war industries. How important do you think this program was in getting women involved in the war effort?
 - b) Today, there are over a half million children under the age of six whose mothers work. What community services do you think should be offered to assist working mothers? Can society afford these services that allow women to work?
 - c) Are these services seen as important priorities in your community?





CANADA IN THE POST-WAR ERA

1946-1969

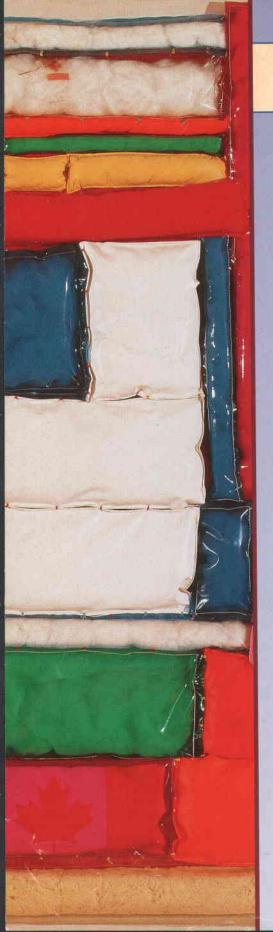
War II. Important contributions to the war and a healthy economy were renewing Canada's self-confidence. Canadians were more prepared to get involved in international affairs and the problems of those less fortunate at home. As a middle power in world affairs, Canada worked for world peace and provided aid to less developed areas of the world.

But World War II was hardly over before the Cold War began. Canadians were faced with the threat of nuclear attack. Canada helped to form the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) and joined the United States in the North American Air Defence Command (NORAD).

Despite these concerns, the economy remained strong and became more industrialized. Couples could afford to have more children. The post-war years were the years of the baby boom. Canada also opened its doors to war refugees and an increasing number of immigrants. The 1950s and 1960s were a period of remarkable population growth.

In Quebec, a growing independence movement led to renewed tensions between that province and the rest of Canada. Canadians became increasingly concerned about American control of our economy and culture. People protested for peace, civil rights, women's liberation, and Aboriginal political and land rights.

- 1. In Confedspread (1967), what symbols does the artist Joyce Wieland use to celebrate Canada? In what specific ways does she use them?
- 2. What does the use of a quilt as the artform express about Canada?
- 3. What materials does Wieland use to make the quilt? Why do you think she chose these materials?



73	1945	-	H	lgor Gouzenko exposes spy ring
	1947			General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade is reached
	1948	+		Liberal Louis St. Laurent becomes prime minister
	1949			NATO is formed Newfoundland and Labrador join Confederation
T (12) 11	1950		E.	Canadian troops serve in Korea
	1951		HE	Indian Act is revised
	1952		E	CBC makes its first TV broadcast
	1956	5		Canadian Labour Congress (CLC) is formed
	1957			Lester B. Pearson receives Nobel Peace Prize
			Canada Council is founded	
		-	L	NORAD agreement is signed
	1958 -		-C [Diefenbaker wins landslide election
	1959 -		-[S	St. Lawrence Seaway opens
No.	1960 -		- ,	Quiet Revolution starts in Quebec Aboriginal peoples win the right to vote
_	1961 -			New Democratic Party (NDP) is ormed
	1962 -			Cuban Missile Crisis threatens world beace
	1963 -	7		Lester Pearson becomes prime minister
			Commission on Bilingualism and Biculturalism is set up	
	400-			Canada unfurls its new flag
** ** **	1965 -	Ш		Auto Pact is signed between Canada and the United States
	1967 -		- □ c	Canada celebrates its Centennial
	1968 -			Pierre Trudeau is elected prime ninister
	1969 -		-[c	Official Languages Act is passed

Strands & Topics

Communities: Local. National, and Global



Canadian Identity

- · Canada gets a new flag (1965) and celebrates its Centennial (1967)
- · new immigrants add to Canada's growing cultural diversity and make important contributions
- · artists and writers contribute to a distinctly Canadian identity
- Canada Council, Order of Canada, and Canadian Film Development Corporation are formed



External Forces Shaping Canada's Policies

- · agreements such as GATT and Auto Pact contribute to globalization of the Canadian economy
- controversy continues over American influences on Canada's economy and culture
- Canada develops policies on immigration of war criminals and holds first war crimes trials



French-English Relations

- Quebec nationalism grows through the Quiet Revolution
- · the separatist Parti Québécois is formed
- · Commission on Bilingualism and Biculturalism urges equal partnership between French and English Canadians
- Official Languages Act is passed in 1969



War, Peace, and Security

- Gouzenko Affair reveals Soviet spy ring in Canada
- · Canada plays role in Cold War and continental defence through NATO and NORAD

· Canada's armed forces contribute to UN peacekeeping

Change and Continuity



Population Patterns

- · immigration levels increase
- · urbanization continues with growth of suburbs
- · baby boom occurs
- · some Aboriginal communities are relocated



Impact of Science and Technology

· television, nuclear power, and plastics change Canadian life



Canada's International Status and Foreign Policy

- · Canada contributes to United Nations through peacekeeping, help for war refugees, and other committees
- · Canada takes leading role in developing Universal Declaration of Human Rights
- · St. Lawrence Seaway and Auto Pact change Canada's relationship with the United States
- · Canada gains further autonomy from Britain and establishes a new role in the Commonwealth

Citizenship and Heritage



Social and Political Movements

- · women's movement and organized labour make strides
- Aboriginal peoples form National Indian Brotherhood and challenge White Paper on Aboriginal policy



Contributions of Individuals

- · Vanier family and John Humphrey take leading roles in advocating human rights
- Thérèse Casgrain and Rosemary Brown contribute to the women's movement
- Marshall McLuhan writes about new social and cultural realities
- leaders such as Harold Cardinal promote Aboriginal rights
- · Lester Pearson wins Nobel Peace Prize

Social, Economic, and **Political Structures**



The Economy

- Canadian economy diversifies
- government introduces policies to deal with regional inequities
- Canadian industrialists contribute to economic development



The Changing Role of Government

- new social support programs are introduced
- government organizes infrastructure projects and signs new economic treaties
- government promotes Canadian culture

Methods of Historical Inquiry



Skill Development

- · making oral presentations
- interviewing
- · interpreting data in tables

Activities

pp. 303–305, 331–333, 361–363

Expectations

At the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- demonstrate an understanding of Canada's role in the Cold War
- · recognize Canada's contributions to the United Nations
- analyze Canada's changing relationship with the United States and Britain
- · identify the major groups that immigrated to Canada and their contributions
- explain the impact of the baby boom
- · demonstrate an understanding of the post-war economic boom and globalization
- · assess the contributions of social and political movements in the post-war years
- · demonstrate an understanding of the Quiet Revolution in Quebec, the growing separatist movement, and the federal government response
- · describe the impact of technological developments on Canadian life
- · evaluate the role of government in promoting Canadian identity, economic development, and social support programs
- appreciate the contributions of individuals
- · practise effective oral presentation skills
- · demonstrate and apply interviewing skills
- effectively analyze statistics in tables



Canada on the World Stage

Soviet Spies in Ottawa!

On the evening of 5 September 1945, an international drama was unfolding in Ottawa. Igor Gouzenko was a young clerk in Ottawa's Soviet embassy. He wanted to break his ties with the Soviet Union and live permanently in Canada. But this would be very difficult. In 1945, the Soviet Union had a communist gov-

ernment that restricted the contacts its citizens could have with non-communist countries. The Soviet leader, Stalin, was becoming openly hostile to Western governments.

But Gouzenko was determined to defect to the side of the West. He decided to smuggle 109 top-secret documents out of the embassy under his shirt. His plan was to turn the secrets over to authorities in return for protection and a new life in Canada.

For 36 hours, no one took Gouzenko seriously. A member of Prime Minister King's staff even suggested that he return to the Soviet embassy and replace the documents.



By this time, Gouzenko was desperate. The theft had been discovered. Soviet embassy officials broke into Gouzenko's apartment. A neighbour called the Ottawa police and they arrived just as Gouzenko was being hustled away by Soviet officials. Finally, the RCMP were convinced that Gouzenko was telling the truth.

The documents Igor Gouzenko turned over contained shocking information. A massive spy ring was operating out of the Soviet embassy in Ottawa. The police discovered several Soviet agents working in Canada, the United States, and Britain. In Canada, the agents included high-ranking military officials, a Member of Parliament, and clerks in government offices. In the United States and Britain, the trail led to scientists who had worked on the first atomic bomb.

Fearing Soviet retaliation, the RCMP provided Gouzenko and his family with personal security. The family was given a new identity and moved to Camp X, where they were under constant police protection. They moved again. Igor Gouzenko died in 1982.

- 1. Examine the photo. Why is Igor Gouzenko's face hidden?
- 2. Why was the Canadian government reluctant to believe Gouzenko at first?
- 3. Why might the Soviet Union want to plant spies in Canada?

The Post-War World

Canadians were shocked by the news of the **Gouzenko Affair**. It was less than a month since the end of World War II. Now they were astounded to learn that the Soviet Union, a former wartime ally, had spies in Canada. But nations that are allies during a war often quarrel when the war is over. This was certainly true after World War II.

While the battles of World War II had ended in 1945, another type of "war"—the **Cold War**—was just beginning. Two new superpowers had emerged after World War II—the United States and the Soviet Union. Their large populations, massive wealth in land and resources, and great military might made them stronger than all other nations. They could be expected to compete for influence over defeated countries.

The term "Cold War" originally meant that the two opposing sides would try to defeat each other by any means short of actual fighting. This war would be fought through espionage (spying), propaganda, and political pressures, not guns. The United States and the Soviet Union never openly declared war on one another, but

they were involved in several conflicts around the world. Canada came to play a crucial role both in peacekeeping and in the new conflicts of the post-war era.

Canada's Foreign Policy

The end of World War II marked an important turning point in Canada's relations with the world. The outbreak of the war had made it clear that Canada could not sit back in an isolationist "fireproof house." It was impossible to be untouched by events in other parts of the world. Canada's strong economy also meant that it was one of the few nations that could help the war-shattered world. In the post-war years, Canada made important changes in its foreign policy, its action plan for dealing with other nations in the world. Canada set new directions in areas such as foreign aid, peacekeeping, immigration, and trade.

Obviously, Canada could not influence international affairs as much as the world powers—the United States, Soviet Union, Britain, France, and China. But neither was Canada a small, weak, or completely unimportant country. With its

Both Mackenzie King
(right) and his
successor as prime
minister, Louis St.
Laurent, were
determined that
Canada should take
a more active role in
world affairs after
World War II.



abundant natural resources, new military might, size, and political stability, Canada was an important "middle power." Prime Minister King was determined to use this power to the country's advantage.

Canada's foreign policy from 1945 to 1969 focused on these major areas:

- promoting world peace and awareness of human rights issues
- co-operating with the United States in continental defence through NATO and NORAD
- forming new global and continental economic agreements
- increasing foreign aid to less developed nations, through United Nations agencies and the Commonwealth
- extending Canada's autonomy within the Commonwealth
- further defining relations with the United States.

Formation of the United Nations

Even before the war ended—while the Soviet Union was still an ally—plans were begun for peace. The Allies agreed that the old League of Nations formed after World War I had to be replaced. It had failed to prevent another world war. A new organization was needed, with real power. President Roosevelt of the United States, Prime Minister Churchill of Britain, and General Secretary Stalin of the Soviet Union were determined to set up an international organization that could settle differences among nations before they led to war.

From April to June 1945, representatives of 50 nations, including Canada, met at San Francisco. They signed a charter that established the **United Nations (UN)**. The opening words of the charter read: "We, the



Lester Pearson, as Canadian ambassador to the United Nations, signed all UN agreements for Canada.

peoples of the United Nations, determined to save succeeding generations from the scourge of war, which twice in our lifetimes has brought untold sorrow . . . do hereby establish an international organization to be known as the United Nations."

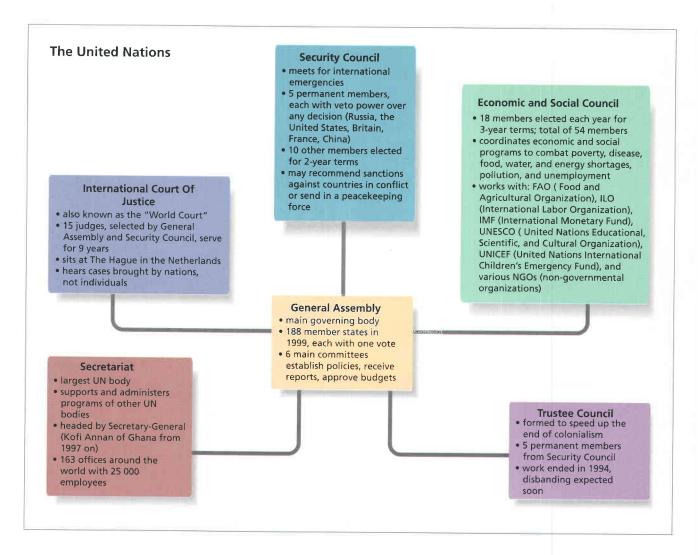
The charter stated that the UN's aims were:

- to band together to avoid war (collective security)
- to encourage co-operation among nations
- to defend human rights
- to improve living conditions for people around the world.

Canada strongly supported the United Nations and the idea of collective security. Two world wars had emphasized the need for nations to stand together against aggression. By signing the charter, Canada offered money and support for world peace.

The major nations were anxious that the United Nations should succeed. The old League of Nations had used sanctions (economic and political penalties) to try to stop countries from fighting. That policy had not worked, so it was agreed that the United Nations should have an army made up of troops from member countries. Sometimes the UN forces would be posted between enemy sides to keep peace. At other times, soldiers would work as observers.

The League of Nations had also been weak because some important countries, such as the United States, had not joined. President Roosevelt was determined that the United States would be a full member of the UN. The permanent headquarters of the organization was built in New York City. All the major powers in 1945 had a key role in the United Nations. Since that time, other nations have also joined.



Canada's Role

Canada's participation in the UN has been wide-ranging. Lester Pearson served as president of the General Assembly from 1952 to 1953. Canada has served a record six terms on the Security Council, first in 1948-1949 and most recently in 1999-2000.

Canada also played an important role in forming the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO). At a conference in 1943, Lester Pearson helped delegates reach a compromise when disagreements arose over the economics of providing food needs. He was a role model in how to mediate conflicts and create a long-term

vision. Pearson proposed the need for a conference Declaration, and he helped to write it. It began:

This Conference, meeting in the midst of the greatest war ever waged, and in full confidence of victory, has considered world problems of food and agriculture and declares its belief that the goal of freedom from want of food, suitable and adequate for the health and strength of all peoples, can be achieved.

Pearson became Chairman of the interim commission that, over the next

two years, developed the FAO as the UN's first permanent agency. At its first session in Quebec, chaired by Pearson, 39 nations became members and began the work Pearson helped envision: raising levels of nutrition, improving food production, and bettering conditions for rural populations.

In 1944, Canada provided the permanent headquarters of the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) in Montreal. Canadian R. M. MacDonnell was the ICAO's third Secretary General from 1959 to 1964. Another Canadian, Dr. Brock Chisholm, became the first director of the World Health Organization (WHO) in 1948. Throughout the UN's history, Canada has also supported the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF) through programs such as fundraising by school children.



In addition to keeping peace, the United Nations set out to help war refugees. The situation in war-torn Europe was desperate. About 20 million people were without a home. Families were walking the streets carrying everything they owned tied up in bundles. Some of these refugees had left their homes to avoid the fighting; others had left to escape the Nazis. Many people simply didn't have a home any more. Millions of houses had been damaged or destroyed during the war.

Even before the war was over, the UN Relief and Rehabilitation Administration worked to help resettle and provide relief for millions of Europeans. Forty nations co-operated in the effort. Canada played a major role. Lester Pearson was chair of the Supplies Committee and toured many refugee camps.

One woman described her experience in a refugee camp in 1945:

We were put in a camp, a refugee camp. It was fine there. We had pillows, blankets, food, and clothes. There was a cupboard there, toothpaste, and a toothbrush! My God, we hadn't seen one for years. Or soap. We got packets from the Red Cross. I always give something now to the Red Cross when people are collecting. No more lice. I was free!

At the end of the war in 1945, another group of refugees needed assistance. During the war, the Soviet army had poured into eastern Europe. People had fled their homelands to escape the Soviet troops. The Soviet Union demanded that the refugees be returned to their homelands, but many did not want to live under a communist government.

The UN established the International Refugee Organization (IRO) in 1946. The IRO and the Red Cross took over old military barracks and prisoner-of-war camps to provide shelter for the refugees. Some Jewish refugees did not want to return to their former towns and villages. Many chose to go to the state of Israel when it was founded in 1948. Canada provided funds (approximately \$18 million) to the IRO, and many Canadians worked in the program.



Netsurfer
Visit the official site of the
United Nations at
http://www.un.org. For a more
Canadian perspective on the
UN, go to the site of the United
Nations Association of Canada
at http://www.unac.org.

A family huddles on the street in Warsaw, Poland, after the war. Many people were homeless and famine-stricken.





SPOTLIGHT On...

The Vaniers

The Vanier family played an important role in supporting humanitarian causes after World War II. Georges Vanier was a young Montreal lawyer when he enlisted in World War I. He was a founding officer of the Vingt-deuzième Regiment (the famous "Vandoos") and later became its commanding officer. For his services in the war, during

which he lost a leg, he was awarded the Military Cross and the Distinguished Service Order (DSO).

After the war, Vanier became a member of the Canadian diplomatic corps. He represented Canada at the League of Nations. As World War II loomed on the horizon in 1939, he was serving as Canada's minister to France. He and his wife Pauline (née Archer) escaped to England as the Germans marched into Paris.

Georges and Pauline Vanier shared a common conviction—they were determined to work for disadvantaged people and support humanitarian causes. In England, they provided comfort to French refugees who were in hospitals. When they returned to Canada in 1941, they tried in vain to convince the government to relax immigration regulations and accept Europeans, particularly Jews, as refugees of war and Nazi oppression.

In 1944, Georges Vanier returned to France as ambassador. The following year, he toured the newly liberated Buchenwald Nazi death camp. This experience intensified his attempts to change Canada's immigration policy. He said on a CBC broadcast, "How deaf we were then to cruelty and the cries of pain which came to our ears, grim forerunners of the mass torture and murder which



were to follow." The Vaniers, together with other groups, were able to get the immigration rules relaxed. Between 1947 and 1952, Canada accepted 186 000 refugees.

In 1959, Georges Vanier was made the first French-Canadian Governor General. These were challenging years for Canada, especially with the growing sepa-

ratist movement in Quebec. Georges and Pauline continued to take a special interest in Canada's families, working for youth and the poor. Georges died in 1967 at the age of 79, and Pauline in 1991 at the age of 93.

The Vaniers' son, Jean, has continued the humanitarian work of his parents. After serving in the British and Canadian navies from 1945 to 1950, he became a theological scholar and teacher in France. In 1964, he set up his first co-operative self-help community. Its aim was to integrate people with mental disabilities into society and help them lead productive lives. He called the home l'Arche ("the ark"). There are now dozens of similar homes throughout the world, including several in Canada, the US, India, and Africa. In 1987, Jean Vanier was named Companion of the Order of Canada.

- 1. Describe what the fate of thousands of war refugees might have been without Georges and Pauline Vanier's influence.
- 2. What experiences in life do you think help to make people like the Vaniers devote so much energy and time to humanitarian causes?

Refugees to Canada, 1956-1980		
Year	Approximate Number	Country of Origin
1956-57	38 000	Hungary (following a revolution against Soviet control over the government)
1968-69	13 000	Czechoslovakia (following the Soviet invasion)
1970	228	Tibetans (following the occupation by the army of Communist China)
1972-73	5 600	Ugandan Asians (fleeing persecution by Idi Amin's government)
1976	4 500	Chileans (fleeing a military dictatorship)
1978-80	50 000	Vietnamese ("Boat people" fleeing the communist government)

Most countries in the world put a limit on the number of refugees they would accept. Often elderly or sick people were not admitted. Many families had to decide whether to stay in a refugee camp as a family, or to leave behind a sick or elderly grandparent. The UN had resettled around one million refugees by 1952, and shut down the IRO. The office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) took its place.

In November of 1946, Prime Minister King brought in emergency measures to allow some European refugees to come to Canada. Between 1947 and 1952, Canada accepted more than 186 000 war refugees. This was a major change in Canada's immigration policy. Just before the war, Canada had turned away Jewish refugees fleeing Nazi persecution. In 1945, the world was slowly becoming aware of the

horrors in the Nazi death camps. This realization, continued pressure from humanitarian and ethnocultural groups in Canada, and a shortage of labour prompted the government to change its policy. Throughout the 1950s and 1960s, Canada continued to accept refugees from countries where people faced revolution, civil war, or persecution.

(\$\text{\text{\$\cappa}}\) Human Rights

The United Nations also took a leading role in the cause of human rights. Again, a Canadian played an important part. In 1946 a Montreal lawyer, John Humphrey, set up the Human Rights Division of the UN Secretariat and became its first director. With the help of others, he wrote a first draft of a **Universal Declaration of Human Rights**. He also guided the

FAST FORWARD

Since the 1950s, Canada has accepted more refugees per capita than any other country. In 1986, Canada was awarded the Nansen medal by the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) for its willingness to accept so many of the world's refugees.

development of the final version, which was adopted in 1948. It was a ground-breaking document. Even more remarkable was its appearance in the early days of the Cold War. An atmosphere of tension, suspicion, and hostility was steadily building around the world.

The Declaration was also in part a response to the Holocaust. The violations of human rights by the Nazi regime were among the most horrific people had ever seen (although the full horror was only beginning to be realized). In Canada, Jewish leaders spoke out strongly on the issue. Rabbi Abraham Feinberg declared at a mass rally in 1945: "I am here on behalf of 6 million Jews who were slaughtered... for no reason other than being Jews..... The ghost of Hitler still walks in Canada."

Before the war, human rights had been a domestic issue—each country was responsible for its own standards, and one country would not interfere with the human rights affairs of another. The Holocaust convinced many that this was no longer an acceptable policy. It was time to agree on what rights were fundamental to all people. Put simply, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights states:

John Humphrey, as chairman of the Commission on Human Rights, with American representative Eleanor Roosevelt.



- Human rights for all are the basis for freedom, justice, and peace.
- The denial of human rights has led to horrific events. A world where humans enjoy freedom of speech and belief, and freedom from fear, is the greatest goal.
- Human rights have to be protected by law.
- Friendly relations between nations must be promoted.
- Equal rights for men and women must be achieved to gain a better life with freedom for all.
- To achieve respect for human rights and freedoms, there must be an understanding of what these rights and freedoms mean.

John Humphrey served more than 20 years at the UN. In 1966, he went back to his former position at the law faculty of McGill University, and continued working on human rights issues. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights he created has been used worldwide as a model for human rights statements, including the Bills of Rights of Canada and Ontario.



In 1945 and 1946, former Nazi leaders. indicted as war criminals by the International Military Tribunal, were tried in Nuremberg, Germany. Canada was not one of the four nations involved in these events. (They were: the US, Britain, the Soviet Union, and France.) Canada did, however, hold its own war crime trials in Germany at this time. In its first trial, in 1945, the Canadian Army prosecuted Kurt Meyer, a major-general in the military wing of the SS. Soldiers under Meyer's command had shot and killed Canadian prisoners of war in Normandy in 1944. Meyer was held responsible for his men's actions. It was suspected that he had at least indirectly ordered the shootings.

The trial posed several legal problems. First, there was no law that specifically covered war crimes. Second, Meyer was judged by a five-member panel of Canadian army officers. There were questions about whether the jury was unbiased. The members of the jury had been Meyer's enemies during the war. Third, Meyer's lawyer was also a Canadian army officer. Some argued he did not present a vigorous defence of his client. Meyer was found guilty of several charges and sentenced to death.

Afterward, because of the questions about whether Meyer had received a fair trial, the Commander of the Canadian Army Occupation Forces changed the sentence to life in prison. The Canadian public was outraged, but the sentence was not changed. Six other war crimes trials were held in 1946. All of the defendants were accused of murdering members of the Royal Canadian Air Force. They were all found guilty, and four were executed by firing squad.

In 1947, Canada's investigations of war crimes all but stopped. The government withdrew its military personnel from Europe and handed its war crimes cases over to the British army. One year later, Britain also decided to stop prosecuting war crimes. There was a feeling that the trials were too grim a reminder of the war. While no one wanted to repeat past mistakes, dwelling on them was judged wrong. Also, with the Cold War emerging, there was a different enemy now. Some people believe Britain wanted to appease West Germany by turning a blind eye to former Nazi war crimes. Canada was informed of Britain's decision to end the prosecutions. and made no comment about it.

Although the Canadian government had stopped pursuing war criminals, it certainly did not want them living in Canada. But keeping them out of the country



A Canadian military court put Kurt Meyer on trial in Aurich, Germany. Why was this trial controversial?

was not an easy task. Immigration officials could not check on European DPs (displaced persons), whose records were lost or in the hands of newly set-up communist governments. Canada was also desperate for farm and forestry workers, so immigration teams were reluctant to turn away applicants. Only known communists were guaranteed rejection.

Canada's stance against communism was so strong that some people accused the government of sympathizing with the Nazis. For example, 2000 Ukrainian soldiers who fought as part of an SS division were admitted into Canada. The points in their favour included the fact that they had fought against only Soviet forces, not against the other Allies. There was no proof that they had committed war crimes. If they were not allowed safe haven in the West, they would be punished by the Soviets for supporting the Nazis. So, in spite of vigorous protests from Canadian Jews, the Ukrainians were admitted into Canada.

Another controversial group were Slovakian exiles. They had supported a pro-Nazi regime in Austria after the war. But they were fervently anti-communist, and so were viewed positively. It is also possible that some immigrants who had once collaborated with the Nazis were planted as spies in Canada by US and British intelligence agencies. Their work as anti-communist agents made them useful "soldiers" in the Cold War.

How far did the Cold War dictate Canada's immigration decisions at this time? It is difficult to say. The old immigration records have been destroyed. Officially, Canada's immigration policy changed as follows.

1949 Canada did not allow past members of the Nazi party, the German armed forces, and collaborators to immigrate.

1950 Restrictions against Nazi party members were withdrawn.

1951, 1953 Restrictions were further relaxed

1962 All 1949 restrictions were withdrawn.

The issue of just how many war criminals came to Canada, and what the government should do about them, would become hotly debated in later years (see Chapter 19).

Canada and the 🗀 Cold War

In the years following World War II, tensions in the Cold War "heated up." During World War II, the Soviet army had occupied countries of eastern Europe. The Soviet leader, Stalin, refused to withdraw Soviet troops from these countries after Hitler had been defeated. The nations of eastern Europe became Soviet "satellite states." A communist government was set up in each country that Stalin controlled. Soviet advisers moved in. Anti-communists were sent to labour camps. Stalin was creating a buffer zone to protect the Soviet Union. He was determined that it would never again be attacked from the west.

The Soviet satellite nations were sealed off from contact with non-communist countries. Travel was restricted and trade was cut off. Even news from outside was not allowed to enter these countries. Other nations watched as eastern Europe became communist. Fear grew in Canada, the United States, and western Europe that communism would take over the world. just as Hitler and the Nazis had tried to do.

There were fundamental differences between the communist government of the Soviet Union and the democratic governments of Canada, the United States, and other Western nations. In the communist Soviet Union, the government controlled most of the property and businesses. It also controlled the individual freedoms of the people, including where they lived, worked, and travelled. Individual freedoms were considered secondary to the needs of the state and the people as a whole. In democratic governments, on the other hand, property and businesses were mainly owned by private individuals and groups. Basic individual rights and freedoms were set out in the countries' constitutions. The democratic nations of the West, including Canada, did not want to lose these basic rights in a communist takeover.

In 1946, British Prime Minister Churchill gave a speech in the United States. Referring to Europe, he told Americans that "an iron curtain has descended across the continent." On one side were the democratic countries of western Europe. On the other side were the communist countries controlled by Stalin. Of course, there was no real iron curtain. But there were minefields to stop people fleeing to the West. There were armed soldiers ready to shoot anyone attempting to escape.



The year 1948 was a crucial one in the Cold War. The Soviet Union first tried to take control of the city of Berlin. Then, Soviet troops moved into position to seize control of Czechoslovakia. Mackenzie King stated his view of the Soviet threat:

So long as communism remains a menace to the free world, it is vital to the defence of freedom to maintain a preponderance of military strength on the side of freedom, and to ensure that degree of unity among nations which will ensure that they cannot be defeated and destroyed one by one.

In 1949, the Soviet Union also exploded its first atomic bomb. The United States, Canada, and other Western powers viewed this development with alarm. The atomic bomb was a weapon of mass destruction. The Cold War was no longer just a struggle over power and influence, it now involved a frightening arms race. It was possible that Soviet spies in Canada had obtained

secret information about making the atomic bomb from atomic energy research at Montreal. Some new defence measures had to be taken. Furthermore, many nations had lost faith that the United Nations was in a position to guarantee world peace because of the lack of cooperation on the Security Council.

In 1947 Escott Reid, a Canadian Department of External Affairs officer, first publicly spoke about an Atlantic defence alliance. Canada's Prime Minister Louis St. Laurent, who became Canada's leader after Mackenzie King's retirement in 1948, was also a strong supporter of such an alliance. St. Laurent realized that the weakness of the United Nations was that it had no permanent armed force of its own. The United Nations was not able to defend Canada against a possible Soviet threat. St. Laurent said in the House of Commons, "We are fully aware of the inadequacy of the United Nations at the present moment



By 1955, Europe was divided into two hostile camps—the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) and Warsaw Pact nations.

to provide the nations of the world with the security which they require."

On 4 April 1949, the **North Atlantic** Treaty Organization (NATO) was formed. Twelve nations signed the treaty. They were Canada, Belgium, Britain, Denmark, France, Iceland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, and the United States. By 1955, these countries had been joined by Greece, Turkey, and West Germany. From the beginning, Canada had wanted the alliance to expand into other areas such as economic and social co-operation. This was put into a clause and became known as the "Canadian article," but it was never put into practice.

The NATO alliance committed its members to collective security. All members promised to defend each other in the event of an attack. It was hoped that the combined strength of the NATO alliance would discourage the Soviet Union from taking any hostile action against NATO members. Canada sent 6500 troops and 12

fighter squadrons to stations in western Europe.

The Soviet Union responded in 1955 by forming its own military alliance, the Warsaw Pact. Its members were the Soviet Union, Albania, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia. East Germany, Hungary, Poland, and Romania. Thus in 1955, just 10 years after World War II, Europe was once again divided into two hostile camps—the NATO and Warsaw Pact countries.

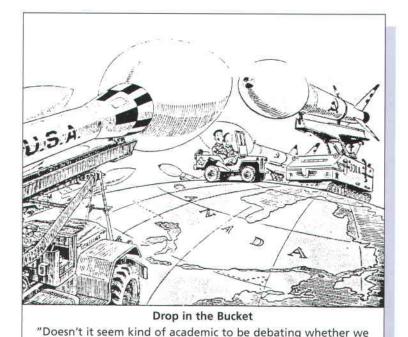
Canada and **NORAD**

By the mid-1950s, both the United States and the Soviet Union had nuclear missiles. Atomic bombs had been followed in the 1950s by hydrogen bombs (H-bombs). The United States exploded its first hydrogen bomb in 1952. The Soviet Union exploded its H-bomb in 1953. Hydrogen bombs were 40 times more powerful than the atomic bomb dropped on Hiroshima. The nuclear warheads were capable of wiping out a large city.

Canada was in a crucial position, located between the Soviet Union and the United States. Missiles fired at the United States would probably come across the North Pole. They could reach their targets in a matter of hours. A means of early detection had to be found. Suddenly, the Canadian Arctic became of immense strategic importance. Canada seemed to have little choice but to become involved in an even closer military alliance with the United States.

Three chains of radar stations were built to detect an air invasion of North America. The Pinetree Radar System was built along the Canadian-American border. The Mid-Canada line ran along the 55°N parallel, and the Distant Early Warning Line (**DEW Line**) was situated along the Arctic coastline. Ships and aircraft pro-

What view does this cartoon present of Canada's position in the nuclear arms race?



should have nuclear weapons?"

vided radar surveillance on both the Atlantic and Pacific coasts.

This defence co-operation between Canada and the United States increased in 1957 when the **North American Air Defence Command (NORAD)** was set up. NORAD brought the air defence of the two countries under a fully-integrated joint command. The commander was an American; the deputy-commander was a Canadian.

The main operation centre for NORAD was built deep within the Cheyenne Mountain in Colorado. A NORAD centre was also constructed at North Bay, Ontario. If there was a nuclear attack, the defence of North America would be directed from NORAD headquarters. From there, nuclear missiles could be fired against the Soviet Union, It was hoped that the NORAD defences would stop the Soviet Union from striking at North America.





IMPACT ON SOCIETY

THE DEBATE OVER NUCLEAR WARHEADS

After the NORAD agreement, the United States moved to station 56 Bomarc-B anti-aircraft missiles at Canadian NORAD sites. The missiles were equipped with nuclear warheads. In 1960, when Canadians became aware that there were nuclear warheads in the country, there was an uproar. Should Canada adopt nuclear weapons? Was this a result of United States' domination of Canadian defence policy?

Both the Canadian and American governments had to agree to put the armed forces on any alert, but the NORAD forces were clearly under an American commander. The atmosphere became even more tense when federal Civil Defence authorities distributed pamphlets with plans for making underground shelters. These shelters were to protect people from nuclear fallout. While experts debated on whether these shelters would serve any purpose, about 2400 were built in Toronto alone, at a cost of about \$4000 each.

Anti-nuclear protesters, convinced that the arms build-up would not stop the Soviets from attacking the West, demonstrated across the country. People understood that a nuclear war could mean complete and utter destruction.

The controversy over nuclear weapons in Canada led John Diefenbaker, who had become prime



A Civil Defence fallout shelter is inspected by Metro Chairman Fred Gardiner in Toronto in 1960. Canadians took the threat of nuclear war very seriously.

minister in 1957, to refuse nuclear warheads for the Bomarc missiles. He felt that arming the Bomarcs with nuclear warheads would set back the hopes for nuclear disarmament in the world. He preferred storing nuclear warheads south of the border until they were needed. His opponents argued that Bomarc missiles without nuclear warheads were useless.

The question became critical during the **Cuban Missile Crisis** in 1962, when the world came dan-

gerously close to nuclear war. Cuba was a communist country. The Soviet Union had installed missiles in Cuba. From the Cuban launch sites, missiles could attack most major American and Canadian cities. The United States demanded the Soviet missiles be removed. It blockaded the shipment of Soviet military equipment to Cuba.

The United States asked Canada, as its defence partner, to put all Canadian forces on alert. War was the next step. Canada hesitated to put its forces on alert, causing a deep rift between the American and Canadian governments. Canada's Bomarc missiles were still not armed with nuclear warheads.

Diefenbaker accused the United States of pressuring Canada. He also accused Liberal leader Pearson of flip-flopping on the issue of nuclear arms. Pearson had opposed nuclear missiles in Canada, but in 1963 decided that Canada had an obligation to accept them. After Pearson was elected as prime



What does this cartoon suggest about the nuclear missile issue in Canada in the early 1960s?

minister in 1963, the Bomarc missiles were armed with nuclear warheads. The issue highlighted the controversy in Canada over fears of nuclear attack on the one hand, and the desire for a strong antinuclear policy on the other.

- 1. Do you think Canada should have accepted the nuclear warheads?
- 2. How would you have reacted to the Cuban missile crisis if you were living in Canada in 1962?
- 3. Do we face the same threat of a World War III, even more destructive than World Wars I and II today?

P

Canada and Peacekeeping

While Canada and the US became increasingly concerned about defence in North America, conflicts were taking place in other parts of the world. The Cold War led to conflicts in areas such as Korea and Egypt in the 1950s. These conflicts had a major effect on Canada.

The Korean War

The outbreak of the **Korean War** in 1950 was the first real test of the UN's peacemaking ability. The Koreans had been an

independent people for centuries, but in the early 1900s they had been taken over by Japan. After World War II, Japan lost control of Korea. The Soviet army occupied the northern half of the country and a communist government was established there. American troops occupied the southern half. The 38°N parallel was the border. The United Nations had been trying to reunite the Koreas with no success.

Then, in June 1950, a powerful North Korean army invaded South Korea. It seemed likely that the heavily armed North Koreans would take over the entire country. The matter was brought to an



War artist Edward
Zuber painted scenes
of battle involving
Canadian troops in
the Korean War. This
painting is entitled
Contact.

emergency meeting of the UN Security Council. At that moment, the Soviet delegate was boycotting (refusing to attend) the Security Council. The Soviet Union was, therefore, not able to exercise its veto power. The Security Council agreed to take action. It ordered North Korea to withdraw its forces. It called on UN members to send military forces to Korea. The American general, Douglas MacArthur, was appointed to command these UN troops. Most troops were from the United States, but other nations, including Canada, contributed to the effort.

Canada sent one infantry brigade, eight naval destroyers, an air transport squadron, and about 27 000 soldiers in all. In April 1951, the Princess Patricia's Light Infantry won praise at the Battle of Kapyong in central Korea. The "Princess Pats," although outnumbered eight to one, dug in to defend Hill 677. They spent three days in terrifying hand-to-hand fighting.

But the Canadians held on, saved by an air drop of food and ammunition. The Canadian victory at Kapyong probably prevented Seoul, the South Korean capital, from falling to the North Koreans.

Five hundred and sixteen Canadians were killed in the Korean War, and over one thousand were wounded. Canada had shown the world that it was prepared to take a responsible role in the actions of the United Nations.

The Korean War ended in 1953 with a truce. Both sides agreed to stop fighting. However, the war did not succeed in uniting the two Koreas. The border between North and South Korea was back to approximately where it had been when the war started in 1950.

The Suez Crisis

In 1956, a situation arose which could easily have developed into a major war between the superpowers. Egypt's head of



Netsurfer
For information on
peacekeeping, visit this
Government of Canada
web site at
http://www.dfait-maeci.gc.ca/
peacekeeping/menu-e.asp.

Lester and Maryon Pearson with the Nobel Peace Prize in December 1957. Why was this a momentous event for Canada? state, President Nasser, decided to take over the Suez Canal from British and French control. The canal was a vital trade route in the East. Ships could travel from the Mediterranean Sea to the Red Sea and the Indian Ocean through the Suez Cannel without sailing around Africa.

The Egyptian action greatly alarmed Israel, Britain, and France. These nations responded by attacking Egypt. The Soviet Union threatened to send missiles to support Egypt. The United States warned that it would step in if the Soviet Union interfered. An explosive situation was building.

Frantic activity took place at the United Nations. Members desperately looked for a way to reduce the tension. Lester B. Pearson was at that time Canadian Secretary of State for External Affairs. Pearson persuaded the General Assembly to order all foreign troops out of Egypt. He convinced the UN to set up a **United Nations Emergency Force (UNEF)**. This would be an international police force. It would keep peace between the rival armies until a settlement could be worked out. As Pearson explained on November 2, 1956.

We need action not only to end the fighting, but to make the peace ... My own government would be glad to recommend Canadian participation in such a United Nations force, a truly international peace and police force.

The UNEF was Pearson's brainchild. Its members would be drawn from middle powers that had no individual interest in the dispute. The force would not fight unless attacked. Instead, it would observe, investigate, mediate, and report back to the UN General Assembly. The force would be composed of 6000 soldiers. One thousand were Canadians. Major-General E. L. M. Burns of Canada commanded the UN force. The UNEF was a change from the UN action in Korea. There armed forces from UN member countries had engaged in active combat in an attempt to bring peace.

In the days that followed, Egypt, Israel, Britain, and France obeyed the ceasefire. The UNEF succeeded in bringing peace to the region. Much credit for this success was given to Lester Pearson. For this achievement, Pearson was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize in 1957. It was a great honour for him and for Canada. In his Nobel address, Pearson said: "In the end, the whole problem always returns to people ... to one person and his own individual response to the challenge that confronts him."



Canada in the Global Economy

While Canada was looking beyond its borders as a peacekeeper in the post-war years, it was also seeking to expand its economic links with other nations. Some of this economic expansion involved the US, but much of it was geared to countries across the globe.

Foreign Aid Programs

One way in which Canada expanded its economic connections was through foreign aid programs. Canada's motives for giving aid were threefold. The first motive was humanitarian—a country as wealthy as Canada considered itself morally obligated to help less prosperous countries. The second motive was economic-if Canada wanted to expand its markets for the raw materials and goods it exported, it should help strengthen the economies of poorer countries. Third, giving aid to other countries had political benefits—a prosperous country is less likely to experience revolutions or dictatorships and more likely to support the aid-giver in world affairs.

Even before Canada took a leading role in large-scale programs, it was giving aid to war-torn Europe. Canada was invited to help with a US program called the **Marshall Plan** in 1948. This plan was partly a response to the Cold War and fears of communist expansion throughout the world. It was believed that countries struck by poverty and upheaval were more likely to support communism. Therefore, the United States was determined to help rebuild Europe and stop the influence of the Soviet Union.

Under the Marshall Plan, vast amounts of machinery, raw materials, food, and building supplies were sent to help Europe recover from the war. Financial aid was offered to any European country that requested it. The Sovietbacked nations rejected the plan because the offer was American—instead, they accepted a program from the Soviet Union called the Molotov Plan.

In the first year of the Marshall Plan, Canada shipped \$706 million in goods to war-torn countries. During the five years of the plan, \$13.5 billion of supplies were sent to 16 European nations by the United States and Canada. European countries

made remarkable progress. The Soviet Union never extended its influence over Western Europe.

In 1950, Canada helped develop the **Colombo Plan**. This plan was set up to give technical and financial support to developing countries in Asia. Leaders of the British Commonwealth decided that Asia needed an equivalent to the Marshall Plan. The plan was the first **multilateral** (involving more than just one or two nations) effort in providing foreign aid to Asia.

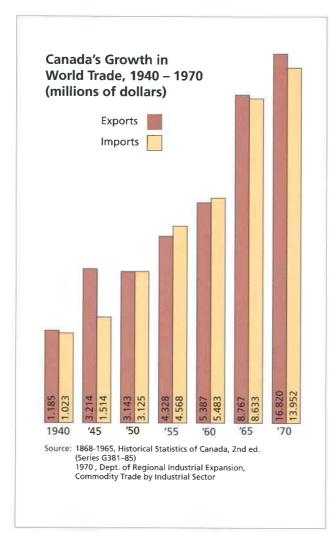
By the late 1950s, membership was granted to countries such as Thailand, South Korea, and Afghanistan, which were not in the Commonwealth. In the first year, \$25 million was pledged for factories and equipment. Canadians helped to establish a nuclear generating plant in India, a cement factory in Pakistan, and irrigation and transportation systems in several Asian countries. By 1973, Canada had contributed \$2 billion to the Colombo Plan.

Under the plan, students from developing countries could also attend Canadian universities, and work with Canadian governments and industries. Thousands of young people studied medicine, forestry, education, agriculture, and administration in Canada. Their studies abroad were referred to as "going on a plan."

In 1968, the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) was formed to co-ordinate Canadian foreign aid programs. CIDA's overall goals are "to support sustainable development in order to reduce poverty and to contribute to a more secure, equitable, and prosperous world."

GATT

Co-operation among nations took place in the area of world trade as well. In 1947, Canada and 22 other nations signed the **General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade** (GATT), a specialized agency of



the UN. The agreement came into effect on 1 January 1948. It was aimed at reducing tariffs (taxes and other barriers) and stimulating world trade. Under the terms of the agreement, if one nation granted certain privileges to a favoured nation, it had to offer the same arrangement to all other members.

The GATT member nations have met several times since 1947 for talks to develop world trade policy. Before each meeting, Canadian representatives meet to find out the concerns of Canadian businesses. Businesses that export goods usually want the government to lower tariffs on imports. This is so that other countries will agree to accept Canadian exports. Businesses that manufacture goods in Canada want to keep Canada's tariffs high to avoid competition with imported goods. Canada has been strongly on the side of the exporters, since the export of raw materials has always been an important part of Canada's economy. Tariffs in 1947 were at a worldwide average of 40 per cent and have fallen steadily since then.

In 1948, Canada and the United States drafted a free trade agreement. At the last minute, Prime Minister Mackenzie King rejected the proposal. He did not want to

What factors contributed to Canada's growth in imports and exports from 1940 to 1970?

Canada's Global Economic Connections

In addition to its foreign aid programs and GATT, Canada joined other organizations that supported economic and political connections among nations of the world after World War II.

- Canada became a member of the World Bank when it was founded in 1945. The organization provided aid to countries devastated by World War II. Later it provided money for economic development projects of member nations. The Bank is funded by annual fees paid by its member nations.
- Canada joined the International Monetary Fund (IMF) started in 1945. Its function is to stabilize
 exchange rates and to promote international trade among members. The IMF also loans money to
 countries that are in debt and face bankruptcy. By doing so, it not only relieves the country involved,
 but may prevent problems in the global economy. A country receiving a loan must guarantee that
 reforms proposed by the IMF will be put into place.
- In 1961, the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) was established. Its
 first chairman was the Canadian Finance Minister, Donald M. Fleming. The OECD promotes economic
 and social policies for its 27 members.

be so closely allied to the United States. He felt Canada's closest tie should remain with Britain, even though Canada's trade with Britain was minor as compared with the United States.

One of the reasons Canada has supported GATT is because of GATT's multilateral agreements, involving several trading partners rather than just one or two. By promoting freer world trade, GATT has helped to fuel the growth of the Canadian economy. But in reality, most of Canada's trade growth has been with the United States. The Canada-US relationship became so close that the Canadian government set the value of the Canadian dollar in terms of the US dollar.

In 1995, GATT was replaced by the World Trade Organization (WTO), which carries on with all GATT agreements.

The Auto Pact

Canada signed another agreement that boosted its trade in 1965. As Canadians became more prosperous in the 1950s and 1960s, more of them bought cars. In the

past, the Canadian government had placed tariffs (taxes) on cars coming into Canada from the US. But by the 1960s, all the car makers were American. Automobile manufacturing was dominated by the "Big Three"—Ford, Chrysler, and General Motors—which had assembly plants in Canada. There was no Canadian-owned car manufacturer for tariffs to protect.

The tarriffs also meant that Canadians paid about 30 per cent more for their cars than American buyers. And since Canada was importing more cars from the United States than it was exporting, Canada had a large trade deficit (shortfall)

with the US. Canadian car buyers and the auto industry pressed for a special trade arrangement.

In 1965, Canada and the United States signed the Canada-US Automotive Products Agreement, better known as the Auto Pact. The Auto Pact allowed free trade in automobiles between Canada and the US. Canadians hoped the agreement would encourage American companies to expand production in Canada, create more jobs, and increase Canadian car exports to the US. Without a free trade arrangement, many Canadian auto workers feared they might lose their jobs, because it was cheaper to produce cars in the United States. Americans, on the other hand, wanted to keep their dominant share of the Canadian market.

The Auto Pact did help to lower car prices in Canada and created thousands of jobs. But critics point out that Canada's automobile industry is dominated by American companies. The profits go to the United States and little money is spent on research and development in Canada.



Netsurfer
Find out more about the IMF
by visiting its web site at
http://www.imf.org.
For information on the
World Bank, go to
http://www.worldbank.org.

The General Motors plant in Oshawa, Ontario. What effects did the Auto Pact have in Canada?





Developing Skills: Making Oral Presentations

Are you someone who prefers to talk about a subject rather than write about it? Oral presentations can allow you to use your skills. Even if you feel nervous about talking, especially in front of a group, some basic steps can help you feel comfortable and set you on the road to presenting an interesting and informative talk.

Giving oral presentations is an important skill. In many careers and occupations, you will need to give informed talks on some aspect of your work. Lawyers, salespeople, journalists, sportscasters, tradespeople, teachers, artists, and many others use speaking skills every day. You probably already use speaking skills more often than you think. When you talk about your hobbies, help friends with homework, or explain a new computer game, you are using some oral presentation skills.

The key to good oral presentations is practice. The more often you do them, the more comfortable you feel and the better your presentations become. Don't worry about making mistakes or sounding foolish. If you are prepared and enthusiastic, you deserve your audience's attention. Here are some helpful steps.

Step I Plan

- 1. Make sure you understand the topic. Ask questions if there is anything you aren't sure about. Know when you will present and how much time you have.
- 2. Make a written plan of the full presentation just as you would do for a written report. Put the main ideas and sub-points in your own words.
- The presentation should have:
- a) an introduction which states the main theme, issue, or purpose of the presentation. Try to make the opening powerful to catch the attention and interest of your audience. Consider using a personal reference, a thoughtful question, a startling statistic, a quotation, or a visual such as a slide or picture.

For example, one student started a presentation this way:

My grandmother arrived in Halifax in 1946 as a war refugee. She was one of thousands who came to Canada after World War II. All she had with her was a small bundle of clothes and very little money.

- b) content that includes ideas and facts to support your main theme.
- c) illustrations to clarify ideas and support your arguments. Your audience will find your presentation more interesting if you use examples and visuals to prove your points. You could use charts, pictures, slides, video clips, short tape recordings, or quotes.
- d) a clear, logical organization. Follow a written plan. Deal with one sub-topic at a time. Arrange your ideas in a logical sequence. This will help your audience focus on your theme and follow your thinking.

For example, an oral presentation on war refugees could ask and then answer each of the following questions:

- Who were the war refugees?
- Why did they come to Canada?
- What were some of the problems they had in adjusting to their new lives?
- e) a summary that reinforces your message and sums up what you have been showing. You may wish to end with a powerful anecdote, quotation, or even a thought-provoking question.

A sample summary might be:

Some refugees had trouble adjusting to Canadian life. They were not always treated kindly. Many, however, like my grandmother, built a new life and grew to love their adopted country. They had families and friends, new and old. My grandmother told me she still keeps in touch with some of the others who came over on the ship with her to Halifax so many years ago.

Step II Rehearse

- 3. Practise from your script but try not to read your notes.
- 4. Rehearse out loud in front of a mirror. Use gestures that come to you naturally as you talk and try to keep eye contact with your audience.
- 5. Vary the volume and pace of your presentation, just as you would in a conversation about something that interests you. Using visuals at key points in your presentation can help vary the pace. Listen to yourself on tape.
- 6. Rehearse over and over until you are comfortable with your materials and don't have to read from your notes.
- 7. Time your practice. Be sure to leave time for questions and discussions. Be ready for questions.

Step III Deliver

- 8. Sit or stand straight and keep eye contact with your audience so that they feel you are talking to them personally.
- 9. Show enthusiasm for your topic. If you enjoy it, your audience will too.

- 10. Have members of the class make notes during the presentation. This encourages them to listen carefully. Check with your teacher about this.
- 11. Have an outline or brief notes to refer to occasionally, but don't read from your notes. Mark off new points with a pause or vocal change. Repeat key points for emphasis but avoid repetition of certain words or phrases. Use simple language and explain difficult terms. Use language your audience understands.
- 12. Speak clearly and distinctly and make sure you can be heard. The presentation will lose a lot of its appeal if you cannot be heard or understood.

Practise It!

Now that you know the steps, practise them. Research and prepare an oral presentation on one of the following topics:

- · war refugees in Canada
- the Gouzenko Affair
- · a Canadian peacekeeping operation
- · a Canadian foreign aid program
- · Canada and the Korean War
- the nuclear arms race
- CUSO (Canadian Universities Service Overseas) programs or a similar program for students or young people overseas

Canada's Growing Autonomy

After World War II, Canada took further steps toward full autonomy from Britain. One of the first steps centred on the issue of citizenship. The others focused on the role of the Supreme Court and the selection of the Governor General.

 Before 1947, there was no such thing as Canadian citizenship. All Canadians were British subjects. Immigrants in Canada from places other than Britain could become naturalized British subjects. This involved swearing an oath of allegiance to the British Crown and living in Canada for at least three years. In May 1947, when the Canadian Citizenship Act was passed, Canadians could become citizens of their own country. New immigrants could become citizens after they had lived in Canada for four

- of the past six years. They also had to know some English or French and be of "good character."
- The Statute of Westminster in 1931 had ended Britain's right to make laws for Canada. But the "court of last appeal" was still the British Privy Council in London. In 1949, the nine justices of the Supreme Court of Canada became the final court of appeal for Canadians. In the same year, the British Parliament changed the British North America Act so that the Canadian Parliament could amend (change) its own constitution.
- In 1952, Vincent Massey became the first Canadian-born Governor General of Canada. Before 1952, all candidates for the position had been British. But a public opinion poll in 1950 had shown that only 22 per cent of Canadians favoured a Briton in the position. Massey's appointment did not change the function of the office—by the Statute of Westminster, the Governor General was still a representative of the British Crown. To Canadians. however, a Canadian Governor General was like "cutting the apron strings." In his years as governor general, 1952 to 1959, Vincent Massey travelled throughout Canada. He tried to give Canadians a feeling of pride in their country and a sense of national identity.

Canada and the Commonwealth

In the post-World War II years, Canada also forged a new role for itself within the Commonwealth. In the 1950s and 1960s, Canada was developing closer economic and military ties with the US. Relations with Britain were largely limited to those involving the Commonwealth. But the Commonwealth was one world organization in which Canada could have a strong voice without the influence of the United States.

Canada supported the former British colonies (such as India, Pakistan, and Ceylon) as they applied for independence within the Commonwealth. In many ways, Canada played the role of intermediary between the old members and the new developing nations.

In 1961, Canadian Prime Minister John Diefenbaker led the Commonwealth in taking a strong stand against racial discrimination. He supported the African and Asian countries within the Commonwealth who wanted tough action against South Africa. South Africa had a policy known as apartheid. Under this policy, Black people in South Africa were not given the right to vote, even though they made up over 80 per cent of the population. They were also forced to live in areas separate from the white population, and could not go to the same schools or hospitals.

Diefenbaker's criticism caused South Africa to withdraw from the Commonwealth in 1961. It was not allowed into the organization again until apartheid was abolished in 1991. Nelson Mandela became the first Black president of South Africa in that year. Diefenbaker's action in 1961 had angered the British. It violated the rule of not interfering in the domestic affairs of member nations. But Canada was clearly taking a new leadership role in the Commonwealth.

The Commonwealth set up its permanent headquarters in London, England in 1965. The first Secretary-General was a Canadian, Arnold Smith. Canada continues to be one of the strongest supporters of the Commonwealth and is the main financial contributor to its programs.



In 1969, a United States' oil tanker, the SS *Manhattan*, travelled through the North-



Netsurfer
Visit the official government
web site for the Governor
General at http://www.gg.ca.
Find out about the history of the
position and the Order of
Canada, which is presented by
the Governor General.



Netsurfer
For more information on
the activities of the
Commonwealth, go to
http://www.col.org.

west Passage in the Arctic. The tanker was exploring a way to transport oil from Alaska to the United States. The voyage set off an intense debate between Canada and the US. The tanker had gone through the passage without Canada's permission. The United States claimed the Northwest Passage was an international waterway. Canada believed it had sovereignty (independent authority) over the passage.

As early as the 1880s, the Canadian government had sponsored voyages to the Arctic and claimed sovereignty over the region. The RCMP administered justice in the territory. Canada had always maintained that ships going through the Northwest Passage needed Canadian permission. If Canada did not have control over the Arctic waterways, would it lose its claim to sovereignty over the Arctic islands as well? Canada also had concerns about oil spills in the sensitive Arctic environment.

Canada sent the matter of the Manhattan's voyage to the International Court of Justice. The Americans did not pursue it, and the challenge died down. In 1970, Canada passed the Arctic Water Pollution Prevention Act. The act established a



coastal zone in which Canada had control over all shipping. Environmental and political concerns went hand in hand. When the Manhattan went on a second trip through the Northwest Passage, it was accompanied by a Canadian icebreaker and it followed Canadian safety standards. The Canadian-American debate over Arctic sovereignty, however, would come up again in 1985.

Cuban Missile Crisis

The Canadian ice breaker John A. Macdonald accompanies the SS Manhattan through the Northwest Passage. Canada claimed sovereignty over the Arctic region.

Activities

(NORAD)

Understand Facts and Concepts

1. Add these new terms to your Factfile.

Gouzenko Affair Cold War **United Nations** Universal Declaration of Human Rights iron curtain North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) **DEW Line** North American Air Defence Command

Korean War United Nations Emergency Force Marshall Plan Colombo Plan multilateral Generalized Agreement on Tariff and Trade (GATT) **Auto Pact**

- 2. In what ways did Canada contribute to the United Nations?
- 3. Give examples of Canada's cooperation with the United States during the Cold War.
- 4. What was Canada's attitude toward aid for less developed nations? Why?
- 5. By 1969, Canada was more independent from Britain than in it had been 1947. What specific steps did Canada take toward greater autonomy in the post-war years?

Think and Communicate

- 6. a) Develop a mind map to illustrate the major aspects of Canada's foreign policy after World War II. Consider Canada's involvement in:
 - i) the United Nations
 - ii) NATO
 - iii) NORAD
 - iv) the Commonwealth
 - v) the global economy
 - b) Describe Canada's foreign policy before World War II. In what major ways had it changed after the war?
- 7. Canada is a member of both the United Nations and NATO. What are the arguments for and against our memberships in these organizations?
- 8. Are there any advantages in having the United States responsible for Canada's defence? What are the disadvantages? Develop and complete an organizer outlining the pros and cons.
- 9. Create a poster, cartoon, button, song, or poem to show your point of view on the nuclear arms race if you had been living in Canada in the 1950s and 1960s.
- 10. In groups, script and present a short TV or radio report on one of the following events. Your reports could include short interviews with some of the key people involved or people on the street. Include an analysis of the events.
 - a) the Gouzenko Affair

- e) the Cuban Missile Crisis
- b) the signing of the Universal Declara- f) presentation of the Nobel Peace Prize tion of Human Rights
- to Lester Pearson
- c) the Kurt Meyer war crimes trial
- g) the voyage of the *Manhattan* in 1969
- d) the formation of NORAD

Apply Your Knowledge

- 11. Discuss how Canada's foreign policy between 1945 and 1969 might have affected the attitudes of people in other countries toward Canadians.
- 12. Canada's contribution to NATO has cost hundreds of millions of dollars in armed forces and military equipment. Do you think this cost has been worth it for Canadians? Poll the class, then ask for explanations.

- 13. Governments and private organizations around the world do a great deal of work in foreign aid. These organizations require specific qualities from people who want to participate:
 - tolerance
 - patience
 - flexibility
 - good health
 - motivation
 - · sense of humour
- curiosity
- open-mindedness
- adaptability
- nonjudgemental attitude
- energy

- warmth in human relationships
- self-reliance
- sensitivity
- empathy
- ability to fail

Write to an organization explaining why you want to volunteer and identify the characteristics you have.

14. Select a United Nations agency (such as UNESCO, UNICEF, or WHO) and research its work. You may wish to write to the Information Division of the United Nations, New York City, for particular details or visit the UN web site. Present a short report to your class describing the agency's activities and evaluating its achievements.

Get to the Source

15. At the beginning of the Cuban Missile Crisis of 1962, President Kennedy did not consult the Canadian government for five critical days. Later, Kennedy sent a US official, Livingstone Merchant, to inform Prime Minister Diefenbaker of the blockade on Soviet shipments to Cuba. The meeting between Merchant and Diefenbaker is described below by Pierre Savigny, Associate Defence Minister.

[Livingstone] Merchant met with Diefenbaker...—and explained what was happening. A cabinet meeting was immediately convened and the serious situation described.

Then something happened—one of those little things which have such an effect. President Kennedy announced on his own that he had the full cooperation of the Canadian government.... Well, the only one who had spoken was me, saying that I would relay the information that Merchant was coming and would arrange for the meeting. Kennedy took it upon himself to jump the gun and say this, probably because he believed that he had the full cooperation of Canada.

At any rate, Diefenbaker got mad and said, "That young man has got to learn that he is not running the Canadian government," and so on. He said, "What business has he got? There is no decision which has been made as yet. I am the one who is going to decide and I am the one who has to make the declaration. He is not the one." Source: Peter Stursberg, Diefenbaker: Leadership Lost, 1962-67 (1976), pp. 14-15

- a) What difficulties did President Kennedy cause for the Canadian government by making such a claim?
- b) Was Diefenbaker justified in reacting as he did? Why or why not?
- c) What does this incident tell you about American attitudes toward Canada in the 1960s?



Canada Comes of Age

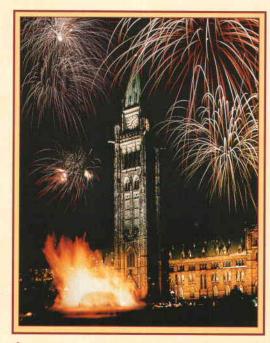
*

Canada's Centennial

In 1967, Canada celebrated its 100th birthday. On 9 January, the Centennial Train left Victoria. It was a travelling museum that would make 83 stops before it reached the East Coast on 4 December. Across the country there were fireworks displays, festivals, parades, picnics, and pageants. Almost every city, town, and village dedicated a new park, library, or concert hall to the Centennial.

In Montreal, Canada hosted the world's fair—**Expo 67**. Sixty-

two nations built pavilions to show the achievements of their artists, engineers, architects, and scientists. Kings and queens, presidents and politicians came to Canada from around the world that summer. In all, the fair attracted more than 50 million visitors. Everywhere, Canadians were celebrating the achievements of the past hundred years.



Centennial celebrations on Parliament Hill in Ottawa, 1 July 1967.

Canada had come a long way since the beginning of the century. By 1967, Canada had become an urban and industrialized nation. Canadians were people from many different ethnocultural and racial communities, Canadian artists, writers, architects, and scientists were gaining international recognition for achievements. their Clearly, Canada was no longer a British outpost. In one hundred years, Canada had come of age. Once a country

rich in resources but of little strategic importance, it was now a middle power whose voice was respected in the world community.

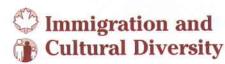
But not every Canadian felt included in the country's good fortune. Aboriginal nations still faced discrimination and were organizing to fight for their rights. People who were poor and people with disabilities were still sometimes overlooked or neglected. Many people of colour did not share in the same rights and opportunities most other Canadians enjoyed. Many French Canadians felt there was very little in the country's future for them. The 1950s and 1960s were also a time of tension and unease in Canada.

- 1. List some of Canada's achievements in its first 100 years as a nation.
- 2. If you had the opportunity to design a Canadian pavilion or car of the Centennial Train in 1967, what would you display in it? Why?
- 3. What challenges do you think Canada faces in the post-war years?

3

Canadian Identity

In the 1950s and 1960s, more Canadians began to consciously ask: What defines us as Canadians? Important contributions in two world wars had given Canadians a sense of national pride. At the same time, Canada had become a completely independent country, free to make its own decisions at home and on the world stage. But what characteristics defined Canada? One of the main things Canadians discovered was that their identity was changing.



From 1901 to 1913, Canada had experienced the greatest wave of immigration in its history. This wave had laid the foundation of Canada's ethnic diversity. But for more than 30 years afterward, immigration to Canada had been restricted. After World War II, Canada gradually opened its doors to more immigrants. There were two major waves of immigration. The first, in the years immediately after the war, were from three main groups: war refugees, war brides, and general immigrants. The second wave came as the economy improved and industries demanded skilled workers.

The First Wave

Between 1946 and 1954, almost 1 million immigrants came to Canada, most from Europe. Over one-third of this wave came from Britain. Earlier immigration policies had not changed, except that more immigrants were wanted. Prime Minister Mackenzie King announced in 1947 that new immigrants would boost Canada's population and the national economy. But the government would carefully control the number and selection of immigrants. The country still favoured immigrants from Britain, western Europe, and the United States. A new Immigration Act in 1952 gave immigration officers the power to exclude particular ethnic and racial groups. Canada still did not want immigrants from Asia, Africa, the Caribbean, and southern Europe.

Immediately after the war, however, Canada made special provisions for more than 47 000 war brides and 22 000 children to immigrate. These were the families of Canadian soldiers who had married overseas during the war. Not surprisingly, most came from Britain. Others came from Holland, Belgium, and France. Brochures were distributed and a Canadian Wives' Bureau was set up in London, England, to prepare many new brides for their lives in Canada.

The Canadian government provided the war brides with free passage to Canada. They were given information on everything from shopping with mail-order catalogues to sleeping arrangements on Canadian trains. But few were completely prepared for their lives in a new and very different country. Some found themselves alone on isolated farms. Others had to live with in-laws who were complete strangers until their soldier-husbands returned from Europe. A few were so homesick and discouraged that they went back to their own countries. However, most stayed, adjusted, and started new lives in Canada.

One war bride recalled:

I really hadn't the slightest idea what to expect when I arrived in Quebec. We stayed three months in St. Jean and then moved to Drummondville where we settled. Of course, I'd known that my husband was a French-speaking Canadian, but it was quite a shock to find that his relatives spoke no English at all. Although his family was a bit put out that he'd married une Anglaise (and a Protestant one at that), they were very good to me.

The band played
"Here Comes the
Bride" as the
Aquitania steamed
into Halifax harbour
carrying more than a
thousand war brides.
What were they
expecting in their
new country?



Another major group of immigrants were those people displaced from their homelands because of the devastation and upheaval of war. They were sometimes referred to as DPs—displaced persons. The Canadian government introduced emergency measures in November 1946 to bring some of these refugees to Canada. As we saw in the last chapter, more than 186 000 refugees resettled in Canada between 1947 and 1953. Many were welleducated professionals and highly skilled workers. Some were sponsored by industries in Canada that needed workers. Often they had to take jobs below their skill levels until they could get established. Some were exploited and paid very low wages. But gradually, many succeeded in finding better opportunities.

People from Poland and the Netherlands were also given special provisions to immigrate because of wartime connections. The Polish army had fought alongside Canadian troops in northwest Europe and Italy. Polish fliers had trained in Canada, and after the war, many Polish people decided to make Canada their home. Doctors, lawyers, engineers, and highly trained technical people were among the Polish immigrants. Many, however, also had to take jobs below their skill levels to get established.

The Dutch had a soft spot in their hearts for Canada. Canadians had helped to liberate the Netherlands from the Nazis. After the war, 30 000 Dutch—mostly farmers—arrived in Canada. Crown Princess Juliana of the Netherlands had lived in Ottawa during the war. A room in the Ottawa Civic Hospital had been declared Dutch territory so that her third daughter could be born on "Dutch soil." For years, the Netherlands expressed its gratitude to Canada with an annual gift of tulip bulbs. These tulips bloom each spring in Ottawa's parks during the Tulip Festival.

FAST FORWARD

Pier 21 in Halifax was the landing spot for 1.5 million immigrants to Canada between 1928 and 1971. Today the Pier is a museum and permanent monument to Canada's immigrants. The Immigration Exhibition focuses on the physical and emotional experiences of immigrants and refugees who came through Pier 21. The Exhibition includes a "Welcome Pavilion" showcasing Canada, an "In Transit Theatre" with a film on the processing experience at the pier, and a "Multicultural Hall" for cultural functions.



Other immigrants came from Great Britain, Italy, the United States, Germany, Greece, and Portugal before 1954.

The Second Wave

Between 1954 and 1967, a second wave of almost 2 million immigrants came to Canada. In 1957 alone, 282 000 people arrived. Many were Hungarians fleeing the Soviet armies that had crushed a revolution in their homeland. The majority of others were British immigrants.

In 1962, new immigration regulations were introduced. They made education and job skills the number one criteria for admitting immigrants. They also withdrew special provisions for British, French, and American applicants. What brought this change?

In the late 1950s, Canada's economy went into a slump. Not enough skilled workers were coming into the country. In fact, many professional and skilled workers were leaving Canada for the United States. Over 75 000 were lured south between 1953 and 1963. On average, over 5000 professional workers were leaving Canada every year.

The regulations opened the door for more non-white immigrants, provided they

had education and skills. But the regulations still had some discriminatory aspects, Canadian citizens could not sponsor family members from Asia and Africa.

In 1967, immigration regulations changed yet again. A universal point system was introduced. People who wanted to come to Canada were given points based on education, occupational demand, age, and knowledge of French or English. If a person received 50 points or more, he or she was eligible to immigrate. The changes were designed to eliminate the discriminatory policies of the past. In 1960, the Diefenbaker government had introduced a Bill of Rights that rejected discrimination on the basis of race, national origin, colour, religion, or gender. The government could hardly justify its discriminatory immigration policies in the light of this new legislation.

Activists who protested the discriminatory policies also played an important role. In 1954, for example, representatives from the Negro Citizenship Association (NCA) presented a brief to Canada's Minister of Immigration. Their recommendations included changing the definition of "British subject" to include British West Indians regardless of race. (Today, we refer



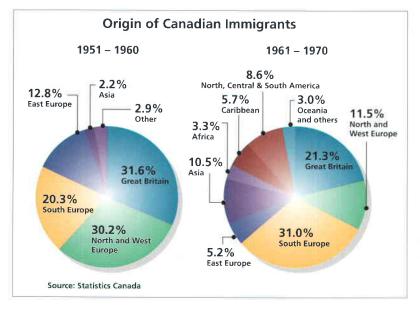
Netsurfer

Visit the web site of Pier 21 to learn more about Canada's immigrants and immigrant experiences at http://www.pier21.ns.ca/ stories/topf.html, In official immigration records the categories for immigrants' place of origin changed in the 1960s. How did they change? Why did they change? to the former West Indies as the Caribbean region). They also urged the government to set up an Immigration Office in the British West Indies. Their proposals were supported by organizations such as the United Church and the Canadian Labour Congress. They also got support from other countries in the Commonwealth (British and West Indian countries). Britain had

already opened immigration to people of colour in 1948. Canada's restrictions went against a policy Britain wanted to see adopted throughout the Commonwealth. The NCA report put significant pressure on the government to change its immigration policies.

With the policy changes of the 1960s, the number of non-white immigrants increased for the first time in Canadian history. The increase in immigrants from Jamaica, Trinidad, Guyana, Haiti, and Barbados is a good example. From 1950 to 1959, 10 682 immigrants came to Canada from the Caribbean. Although this number was a significant increase over previous years, it represented only 0.69 per cent of total immigrants, the same percentage as in the 1940s.

In 1962, Britain "closed the door" to Caribbean immigrants. Many therefore chose Canada. From 1960 to 1969, the number of Caribbean immigrants rose to 46 030. Similarly, the number of people who came from eastern and southern Asia rose from 27 120 before 1961, to 81 780 from 1961 to 1970.





IMPACT ON SOCIETY

AN HONOUR ROLE OF NEW CANADIANS

A number of immigrants who came to Canada in the 1950s and 1960s made significant contributions to Canada in a variety of fields including politics, the arts, science, and medicine. These are the stories of just some of these individuals.

Novelist Austin Clark was born in Barbados and came to Canada as a student in 1955. He became a university teacher/writer in residence and a journalist. In 1963, the CBC sent him to conduct one of the most extensive interviews ever with the Black activist Malcolm X. Austin Clark's novels include a

well-known trilogy about Caribbean immigrant life in Toronto: *The Meeting Point* (1967), *Storm of Fortune* (1973), and *The Bigger Light* (1975). He was vice-chairman of the Ontario Film Review Board from 1984 to 1987.

The poet Rienzi Crusz was born in Sri Lanka and came to Canada in 1965, where he found work at the University of Toronto Library. His poetry first appeared in 1968 and his first published work came out in 1974.

Senator Anne Cools immigrated to Canada from Barbados in 1946, when she was 13 years old. Committed to public service, she was a student activist in the 1960s and became a social worker and administrator of shelters for battered women and children. In 1980, she entered politics and four years later became the first Black person appointed to the Canadian Senate. She has worked to reform family law and helped produce "For the Sake of the Children," a 1998 report on child custody and access.

Rosemary Brown, a politician and university professor, was the first Black woman elected to political office in Canada. She was born in Kingston, Jamaica, in 1930. She immigrated to Canada in 1951. In 1972, she was elected to the British Columbia Legislature. There, she helped bring in legislation to stop discrimination on the basis of sex or marital status. She also created a committee to eliminate

Rosemary Brown was also the first woman of colour to run for leadership of a federal political party. She was defeated by Ed Broadbent in the NDP leadership election in 1974. In 1986, she became a professor of Women's Studies at Simon Fraser University and a speaker on issues of peace, women's liberation, and human rights. In 1993, she started a three-year term as the Chief Commissioner of the Ontario Human Rights Commission. In 1995, Rosemary Brown received the Order of British Columbia. She continues to be a distinguished human rights activist.

sexism in textbooks and educational curricula.

Herb Dhaliwal is another successful politician. Appointed as federal Minister of Fisheries and Oceans in 1999, he also served as Minister of National Revenue from 1997 to 1999. His service to Canada involves work on the world stage. He has

participated in a trade mission to India, a parliamentary delegation to Cuba and UNESCO, and has been cited by the Red Cross for his work in helping Kurdish refugees. Dhaliwal was born in India in 1952 and immigrated to Canada in 1958, when he was six years old. After graduating from university, he started a small business that grew into several operations and employed over 500 people. His political career began in 1993 when he was first elected to the House of Commons.



Rosemary Brown received the Order of Canada in 1996.

Many new Canadians also made contributions in the fields of science and medicine. Thomas Ming Swi Chang, born in China, came to Canada where he attended McGill University. He invented the world's first artificial cell in 1957, and later developed the first artificial blood. Ray Chu-Jeng Chi, born in Japan in 1934, got his PhD at McGill University in 1970. His work in techniques

for heart surgery was a milestone. He pioneered a procedure for adapting a piece of back muscle to resemble the heart muscle. A pacemaker works on the back muscle to help the heart's contractions.

Yoshio Masui, from Japan, invented several techniques to study cell division. He also discovered the cell growth switch. This was declared one of the most important biomedical science discoveries of the last 50 years. Tak Wah Mak discovered the T-cell receptor, a key to the human immune system, in 1983. Tak Wah Mak was born in China in 1946 and came to Canada for his doctorate, which he received from the University of Alberta in 1971. His work since then at the Ontario Cancer Institute and the University of Toronto has contributed to research for cures of diabetes, multiple sclerosis, and rheumatoid arthritis.

^{1.} Research other individuals who immigrated to Canada during this era and present their contributions to Canadian society.

The Nation Expands

It was not only the population of post-war Canada that was growing. The political boundaries of the country were also changing. On 1 April 1949, Newfoundland and Labrador became Canada's tenth province. Feelings about joining Confederation in the new province were mixed. Some people hung black flags out their windows and wore black armbands in protest. Others gathered in community halls to celebrate becoming Canadians.

Since 1855. Newfoundland and Labrador had been self-governing. Newfoundland flatly rejected Confederation in 1867, preferring to keep its historic ties with Britain. Sir John A. Macdonald was disappointed when the colony rejected Confederation. He had once remarked. "The Dominion cannot be considered complete without Newfoundland. It has the key to our front door."

The worldwide depression of the 1930s had hit Newfoundland and Labrador hard. The government was near bankruptcy, and in 1934 had to accept British administration and assistance. After World War II, the British government no longer wanted the financial responsibility for the colony. Joseph R. Smallwood and others began to urge fellow Newfoundlanders and Labradorians to join Canada. Smallwood, a former organizer of a fishing

Are You in This List?

To All Mothers: Confederation would mean that never again would there be a hungry child in Newfoundland. If you have children under the age of 16, you will receive every month a cash allowance for every child you have or may have.

To All War Veterans: Canada treats her Veterans better than any other country in the world. She has just increased their War Pensions 25 per cent. Under Confederation you will be better treated than under any other form of government.

To All Wage-Workers: All wage-workers will be protected by Unemployment Insurance. Newfoundland, under Confederation, will be opened up and developed. Your country will be prosperous. Your condition will be better.

To All Over 65: You would have something to look forward to at the age of 70. The Old Age Pension of \$30 a month for yourself, and \$30 a month for your wife will protect you against need in your old age.

To All Railroaders: You will become employees of the biggest railway in the world, the CNR. You will have security and stability as CNR employees. Your wages and working conditions will be the same as on the CNR. Under any other government you face sure and certain wage-cuts and lay-offs. You, your wives and sons and daughters and other relatives should flock out on June 3 and vote for Confederation.

To All Building Workers: Under Confederation Newfoundland will share fully in the Canadian Government Housing Plan, under which cities and towns are financed to build houses. 1000 new homes will be built in St. John's under this plan.

To All Light Keepers: You will become employees of the Government of Canada. Your wages and

working conditions will be greatly improved.

To All Postal-Telegraph Workers: You will all become employees of the Government of Canada, at higher salaries and much better working conditions.

To All Fishermen: The cost of living will come down. The cost of producing fish will come down. The Government of Canada will stand back of our fisheries. The Fish Prices Support Board of Canada, backed by Canada's millions, will protect the price of your fish.

To All Newfoundlanders: The cost of living will come down. The 120 000 children in our country will live better. The 10 000 Senior Citizens of our country will be protected in their old age. Newfoundland will be linked up with a strong, rich British nation. Newfoundland will go ahead with Canada.

Source: The Confederate, May 31, 1948.

union, was also a publisher and radio personality. He became the driving force behind joining Confederation.

It was a tough fight. Anti-Confederationists warned that joining Canada would mean the loss of local power, identity, and values. People were very proud of their historic ties with Britain and the fact that Newfoundland was Britain's first overseas colony. They also argued that Confederation would bring economic ruin. Goods from Canada would be so cheap that Newfoundland products would not sell. The Canadian government would probably tax their boats, fish, and fishing tackle. The Roman Catholic Church feared that Confederation would mean the end of the Roman Catholic school system.

Joey Smallwood was convinced that Newfoundland and Labrador had to join Canada to move into the modern era. Belonging to Canada would provide much needed money to build schools, hospitals, and roads. It would also provide jobs for the people and other important government benefits. The excerpt from *The Confederate* in 1948 is an example of some pro-Confederation propaganda.

Fierce debates over Confederation kept everyone glued to their radios. Referendums (direct public votes) were held on whether or not to join Canada. There were three options for the people of Newfoundland and Labrador to consider: the "status quo" (that is, to stay the same); joining Confederation; or going back to the situation in 1934.

In the first direct public vote on the issue, there was no clear decision. But because it received the lowest number of votes, the first option was dropped from the ballot. In the second referendum, the people voted by a narrow majority—52 per cent to 48 per cent—to join Canada. Smallwood, a new Father of Confederation, became the province's premier. By



Joey Smallwood signed the agreement admitting Newfoundland and Labrador into Confederation.

the terms of union, Newfoundland and Labrador received the same financial benefits as other provinces. It also got special assistance because of its uncertain economy and relatively low standard of public services. The federal government took over the province's public debt and the operation of the Newfoundland Railway.

French-English Relations

While Newfoundland and Labrador joined Canada in 1949, an independence movement was gaining momentum in Quebec. In the post-war years, the country was forced to re-examine its relationship with French Canada.

Quebec Before the Quiet Revolution

Feelings of loyalty to French-Canadian traditions and values were strong in Quebec. Maurice Duplessis, who had been premier of Quebec from 1936 to 1939, was premier again from 1944 to 1959. He was called *le chef*, the chief, and he dominated his Union Nationale government. Duplessis was determined to stop any federal government interference in Quebec's affairs and to develop Quebec's resources. He refused some federal programs and grants for education and health care that would

affect traditional life and values in Quebec. Many schools and hospitals in Quebec were run by the Roman Catholic Church.

Duplessis saw no problem with encouraging English-Canadian and American investment in Quebec, however. English-speaking business people established new factories and businesses. Quebec became more urban and industrialized under Duplessis. But the development also came with scandal and accusations of corruption. For almost every bridge, road, or hospital built, Duplessis expected something in return. He demanded political favours, campaign funds, or votes—and he got them.

In September 1959, while visiting northern Quebec, Maurice Duplessis died. His "iron hand" rule was over. Pressures for change were suddenly let loose in Quebec. Reforms began almost immediately. But the real change came when the new

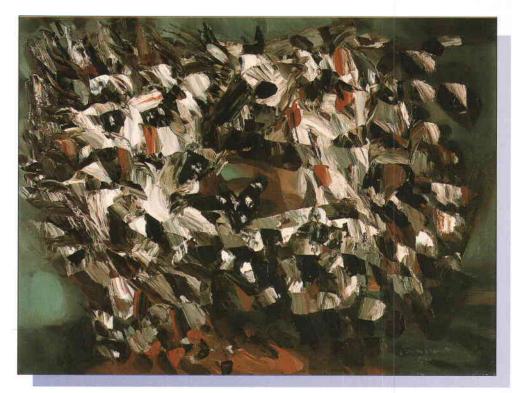
Liberal government under Jean Lesage was elected in 1960. It was the beginning of the Quiet Revolution.

The Quiet Revolution

Lesage gathered around him an impressive team of cabinet ministers. They included René Lévesque as Minister of Natural Resources. Lévesque would later become a very influential premier. Lesage's new government promised to do two main things. One was to improve the economic and social standards of the people of Quebec. The other was to win greater recognition for all French-speaking people and give them greater control over their own futures. These changes under the Lesage government came to be known as the **Quiet Revolution** in Quebec.

One of the government's first moves was to take control of the hydroelectric companies. Control over hydroelectric power would give Quebeckers more say in

A new group of painters in Quebec reflected the wave of change. This painting by Paul-Émile Borduas entitled The Circular Path, Nest of Aeroplanes, represents a move to a more abstract style.



their economic future. The government also supported the building of the Manicouagan Power Dam, one of the largest in the world. French-Canadian engineers from all parts of Canada returned to Quebec to work on the project. The catch phrase was "on est capable,"—"we can do it!"

Another slogan of the Quiet Revolution was "Maîtres chez nous," meaning "Masters in our own house." The government wanted more control for French Canadians over affairs in Quebec. Many businesses were run by English Canadians, and French-Canadian workers often earned less than workers in other parts of the country.

Quebeckers of British origin were at the top of the economic ladder. Their average annual wage in 1960 was \$4940. Average wages then declined through a number of other largely English-speaking ethnic groups: Scandinavian, Jewish, German, Polish, and Asian. Almost at the bottom of the economic ladder were French-Canadian Quebeckers. Their average annual wage was \$3185.

Most top management jobs in the province were held by English-speaking people. Twice as many English as French Canadians held high-paying, high-status professional and managerial positions. French-speaking Quebeckers, 80 per cent of Quebec's total population, were among the least favoured in their own province.

The Lesage government also began to replace programs previously run by the Church. These included hospital insurance, pension schemes, and the beginnings of medicare. To do this, the Quebec Liberals had to struggle with Ottawa for a larger share of the tax dollar.

One of the most sweeping reforms was the modernization of the school system. In the past, the schools of Quebec had been run by the Church. Priests and nuns provided a good education, but not

in business and technology, which was what Quebec now needed. Lesage wanted a government-run school system that would equip a modern Quebec with experts in engineering, science, business, and commerce.

The new freedom of expression in Quebec gave rise to a flood of books, plays, art, and music about the French culture in Quebec. Gratien Gélines became one of the most popular contemporary playwrights. New film directors such as Claude Jutra began to emphasize themes drawn from Quebec life in their films. Of all the artists, the singers of Quebec in the 1960s used political themes and messages the most.

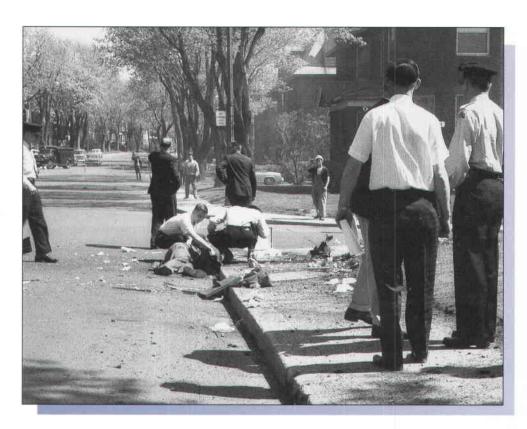
But relations between French- and English-speaking people in the province were tense. Author Hugh MacLennan wrote about the "two solitudes" in Canada. English and French Canadians seemed to live parallel but completely separate lives.

Separatism and the Independence Movement

Some Quebeckers suggested that the only solution to Quebec's problems was **separatism**. Separatism expressed the desire of a province to break away from the Canadian union. During the Quiet Revolution of the 1960s, a small but influential group began to talk seriously about separation. Separatists demanded immediate independence for Quebec. They argued that as long as Quebec was associated with the rest of Canada, French Canadians would never be treated as equals. The separatist slogan was "Québec libre" or "Free Ouebec."

The **Front de Libération du Québec (FLQ)**, founded in 1963, was a radical group of separatists. The FLQ had no leader, but was a collection of separate cells or groups. Their idea was to use terrorism as a weapon to achieve indepen-

A mailbox bomb explodes in Montreal. Why did some Quebec separatist groups use these measures?



dence for Quebec. A number of bombs were exploded, mostly in Montreal, and at least one person was killed.

Another separatist group, the *Armée de Libération du Québec (ALQ)*, used even more violent methods. They robbed banks to get money and raided Canadian Armed Forces depots for ammunition. They set off bombs in mailboxes in the English-speaking districts of Montreal. Between 1963 and 1970, there was a terrorist bombing somewhere in the province almost every 10 days.

In the Quebec provincial election of 1966, the Union Nationale party under Daniel Johnson was elected. Their slogan was "Equality or Independence." Johnson warned Ottawa that unless Quebec was given "special status" in Confederation, it would have to go its own way. This demand included control over economics, social welfare, housing, and tax dol-

lars to carry out these responsibilities. Quebec also wanted to deal directly with foreign governments in matters of culture and education.

"Vive le Québec Libre!"

The visit of France's president, Charles De Gaulle, created an incident that rocked Canada's Centennial celebrations in 1967. De Gaulle came to Canada at the invitation of the Quebec government to visit the magnificent site of Expo 67.

At a reception held by the city of Montreal, De Gaulle appeared on a balcony to address a wildly cheering crowd. He told the people that he felt that day as he had on the day France was liberated from the Nazis in 1944. He ended his speech with the resounding cry, "Vive le Québec libre!" ("Long live free Quebec!"). "Québec libre" had been the well-known slogan of Quebec separatists since 1963. De Gaulle



Why did De Gaulle's remarks at Expo 67 stir up a wave of controversy?

seemed to be giving his enthusiastic support to the separatists in their struggle for the "liberation" of Quebec.

Many Canadians watching De Gaulle on television were stunned by his comparison of their government with the Nazis. Prime Minister Pearson was outraged by De Gaulle's interference in Canadian affairs. Pearson issued a sharp statement to the press, labelling as "unacceptable" De Gaulle's encouragement to "the small minority of our population whose aim it is to destroy Canada." The prime minister went on to say that: "The people of Canada are free. Every province in Canada is free. Canadians do not need to be liberated. Indeed, many thousands of Canadians gave their lives in two world wars in the liberation of France"

President De Gaulle cancelled the rest of his trip and returned immediately to France. Until De Gaulle's retirement in 1969, relations between France and Canada continued to be tense because of this affair.

The Parti Québécois

The independence movement continued to gain momentum. In 1968, René Lévesque formed the *Parti Québécois*. Lévesque was a fiery broadcaster and former politician. He spoke passionately about Quebec's rights and the wrongs that

had been done to French Canadians. He was a hero to a new generation who preferred to be called *Québécois*, not French Canadians.

Lévesque proposed **sovereignty** for Quebec. In other words, he believed the future for Quebec was as an independent country, running its own affairs without interference from the rest of Canada. Lévesque always opposed terrorism and insisted on democratic and moderate means for achieving independence.

Searching for Identity

In 1963, the Liberals had won the federal election and Lester Pearson became Canada's Prime Minister. The dramatic changes in Quebec during the Quiet Revolution made it clear that this new government had serious issues to work out. Above all, the country needed a renewed, stronger sense of its identity. How could the conflicts between Quebec and the rest of the country be resolved? What should Canada's relationship with the United States be? Was Canadian culture under threat?

The Bi and Bi Commission

In its first year in office, the Pearson government set up a **Royal Commission on**

Bilingualism and Biculturalism ("Bi and Bi Commission") to examine the relations between French and English Canadians. It was also to consider Quebec's role in Confederation. The commission studied the issue for several years. It concluded that Canada was passing through its greatest crisis. The commission warned that unless there was a new and equal partnership between French and English Canadians, a break-up was likely to result. Among the commission's major recommendations were the following:

- Canada should be officially declared bilingual by making French and English the official languages of the federal Parliament and courts.
- New Brunswick and Ontario should officially declare themselves bilingual provinces.
- Provinces where the minority group is more than 10 per cent should provide government services in both English and French.
- The region of Ottawa-Hull should be made a national capital area and should be officially bilingual.
- Students in all provinces should be given a chance to study both official languages.
- More French Canadians should be employed in the federal government.
- In Quebec, French should be the main language of work, government, and business.

To carry out many of these recommendations, the federal government needed the co-operation of the provinces. Some provincial governments resisted legislation that promoted French language and culture. So, although New Brunswick became officially bilingual, Ontario did not. Ontario improved its French language practices, and a later Ontario act allowed for government services in French in designated areas. In 1968 an Ontario law guar-

anteed the right to education in French at the elementary and secondary levels.

Despite these changes, French-speaking communities outside Quebec continued to struggle for recognition. It was not until the 1980s and 1990s (see Chapter 18) that communities in Manitoba, Ontario, and New Brunswick saw definite improvements in French language rights.

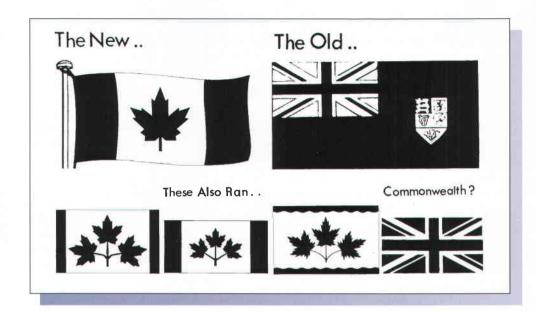
A New Flag for Canada

Before 1965, Canada's official flag was the Union Jack, Britain's national flag. But the Red Ensign was also commonly raised on flagpoles. The Red Ensign was originally flown by the Canadian Merchant Marine. It had a red background with the Union Jack in the top left corner and the Canadian coat of arms diagonally opposite. Many French Canadians objected to the Union Jack and the Red Ensign because of their close association with the British Empire and the conquest of New France in 1759. Other Canadian citizens also thought it was time Canada shed its colonial past and had its own distinctive flag. As new immigrants came to Canada from around the world, Canada was clearly establishing a new and more multicultural identity.

Proposals for a new flag began as early as the 1920s. Prime Minister Mackenzie King tried to have a national flag adopted in 1925 and again in 1946, but failed. In 1948, Quebec adopted its own flag, the *fleur-de-lys*.

During the Suez Crisis in the late 1950s, Canada sent troops as part of the UN peacekeeping force. But the Egyptians objected to the clearly British elements in the Canadian flag. Britain had invaded the Suez. The Egyptians did not trust the Canadians to be impartial in light of these British symbols.

With these incidents in mind, the Liberals submitted a design for a new flag to



The flag in the top right is the Red Ensign, which was replaced by the flag with the single red maple leaf.

Parliament in June 1964. The design purposely avoided British and French symbols—the Union Jack and the *fleur-de-lys*. Instead, there were three red maple leaves sprouting from a single stem on a white background. At each end of the flag were vertical blue bars to suggest the Atlantic and Pacific oceans.

In Parliament, John Diefenbaker led the opposition to "Pearson's Pennant." Diefenbaker, proud of Canada's British connections, wanted to keep the Red Ensign. He was not alone. Many veterans who had fought bravely under the Red Ensign in two world wars did not want to see it replaced.

Months of controversy followed. Finally, an all-party parliamentary committee recommended a new design. It was a single red maple leaf on a white background with red borders at each end. Diefenbaker and some of the opposition hoped to delay the passing of the flag bill by using filibuster. Filibustering means talking on endlessly until the plan has to be dropped so the government can go on with other business.

For 33 days, opposition members stated and restated their reasons for rejecting the new flag. Neither side would give in. Finally, the Liberal government ended the flag debate by using closure. Closure is a special rule limiting the amount of time a bill may be discussed in Parliament. At 2:30 in the morning of 15 December 1964, Canada's new red maple leaf flag was officially passed. It was a scene full of emotion. As the vote was announced (163 for. 78 against), the MPs rose to their feet to sing O Canada. Two days later the Senate gave approval, and Royal assent was granted on 28 January 1965. The new Canadian flag flew for the first time on 15 February 1965.

The Official Languages Act 1969

The Bi and Bi Commission had recommended a policy of official bilingualism. It was up to the federal government to respond. Pierre Trudeau, who became Prime Minister in 1968, described bilingualism as the most important issue in French-English relations since the con-



Netsurfer
To find out more about
Canada's symbols, visit this
web site http://canada.gc.ca/
canadiana/symb_e.html

scription crisis. In 1969, his government passed the **Official Languages Act**. The act declared:

The English and French languages are the official languages of Canada for all purposes of the Parliament and Government of Canada and possess and enjoy equality of status and equal rights and privileges as to their use in all the institutions of the Parliament and Government of Canada.

In other words, the act guaranteed that both French and English Canadians could deal with the federal government in their own language. All documents, reports, speeches, and pamphlets issued to the public were now to be published in French and English. In parts of Canada where there was a sizeable French-Canadian minority, government services were to be available in both languages.

The expanded use of the French language provoked many Canadians. Do you agree that products in Canada should have labelling in English and French?



Federal funds were provided to the provinces to promote bilingualism. Facilities for French language radio and television in provinces outside Quebec were expanded. Regulations required bilingual labelling on products sold across Canada. The government also pledged to provide more jobs in the federal government for French-speaking citizens. Until that time, only 14 per cent of the top government jobs were held by French Canadians, even though they made up 25 per cent of the population.

There was widespread criticism of the Official Languages Act outside Quebec. Many Canadians felt that the federal government was trying to "ram French down people's throats." There was a feeling that French Canadians were getting special treatment, and that a dual language system was wasteful. Some people guestioned why so much money was spent on making French services available in parts of the country where few people spoke the language. And was Canada not becoming more multilingual, a country in which many different languages were spoken? The issues of French-English relations in Canada, and whether Canada was a bicultural or multicultural country, were far from resolved

Promoting Canadian Culture

In the 1940s and 1950s, radio, films, books, television, art, music, and even sports in Canada were all in danger of being swamped by American influences. Canadian nationalists had long fought against the influence of American culture on Canada. In many ways, it seemed the development of arts in Canada was dependent on the US.

In 1949, influential Canadian cultural organizations persuaded the government

O 6 Arts Talk



Aboriginal Artists

A number of artists from Aboriginal nations were gaining international recognition in the 1950s and 1960s. Their work increased awareness of Aboriginal cultures. Two prominent artists were Norval Morrisseau and Pitseolak Ashoona.

Norval Morrisseau

In the fall of 1962, the work of a young Ojibwa artist caused excitement in Toronto. The artist was Norval Morrisseau, and it was his first exhibit. On opening night, all his paintings were sold. Such success was remarkable.

Morrisseau's paintings represented subjects from the oral tradition of the Ojibwa people. Many showed the Manitous, the spirits of the Ojibwa. For a long time Morrisseau wondered whether it was proper to paint and exhibit these spiritual subjects. Eventually, he had a vision in a dream which told him it was all right to do so.

Morrisseau had no formal art lessons, although his grandfather had shown him how to make pictures on birchbark. His earliest pictures were in black and shades of brown on paper. Later, he began adding brilliant colours and painting on canvas in acrylics.

Morrisseau has created large murals for public buildings and his works now hang in major collections all over Canada. His work influenced a new generation of Aboriginal painters in eastern Canada such as Benjamin Chee-Chee and Carl Ray. Like Morrisseau, they interpreted traditional stories of their people.

Pitseolak Ashoona

Her prints hang in the National Gallery in Ottawa and in museums in Europe and the United States. They show traditional Inuit scenes. Her energetic drawings capture the spirit and the customs of the traditional life on the land. They show families on hunting expeditions, hooded figures in sealskin boats, and little girls learning to catch a goose. But the way of Inuit life the pictures show has largely disappeared in the North.

The artist is Pitseolak Ashoona. She was born in 1904 on Nottingham Island in the Arctic. For most of her life, she lived a traditional camp life moving with her husband and family in search of good hunting.



The Water Spirit, Mishapishoo, by Norval Morrisseau.



Women Juggling Stones by Pitseolak Ashoona.

After her husband's death, Pitseolak was very poor. In 1957, she heard that Inuit at Cape Dorset were learning to make stone cuts and prints from drawings. Pitseolak decided to try drawing to earn a living. She had never drawn before, but her talents were quickly recognized. Her first drawings were eagerly bought at the Cape Dorset Cooperative. Before she died in 1983, she had created more than 7000 drawings showing the ways of her people. She received many honours for her artistic achievements. In 1977, she was awarded the Order of Canada.

- 1. In the 1950s, the government encouraged Inuit artists to sell their traditional artistic creations through cooperative marketing. Discuss the pros and cons of this commercialization of Inuit art.
- 2. Today, a number of artists, writers, and performers from Aboriginal nations are gaining increasing recognition nationally and internationally in many different fields. Investigate some of these artists. For visual artists, you could create a short portfolio to represent their work. For musicians or others, you could present a short biography and list of achievements or an audiotape. Consider some of the following people and investigate others.

John Kim Bell
Tantoo Cardinal
Graham Greene
Tom Jackson
Rita Joe
Jerry Alfred
Tina Keeper

Buffy Sainte-Marie
Tomson Highway
Carl Ray
Kashtin
Ruby Slipperjack
Lawrence "Wapistan" Martin
Doreen Jensen

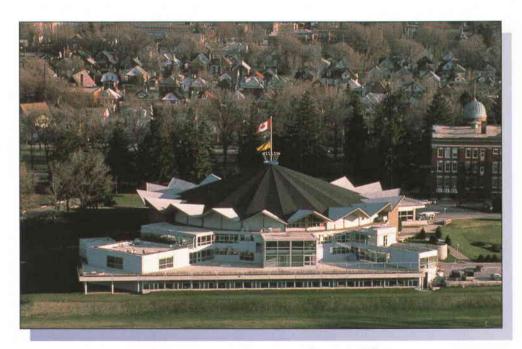
Daniel David Moses Thomas King Susan Aglukark Douglas Cardinal Daphne Odjig Bill Reid George Littlechild to set up a Royal Commission on National Development in the Arts, Letters. and Sciences. The commission's investigation was the broadest of its kind ever done in Canada. Vincent Massey, who was to become Canada's Governor General, chaired the commission. The "Massey Report," released in 1951, suggested that the government set up an independent organization to promote the Canadian arts, especially the ballet, the theatre, and orchestral groups. The report pointed out that no writer, composer, or playwright could make a living from his or her work in Canada. Gifted Canadians "must be content with a precarious [uncertain] and unrewarding life in Canada, or go abroad where their talents are in demand." The report also recommended that the CBC take over national television.

Six years after the Massey Report, the **Canada Council for the Arts** was established. Two prominent industrialists, James Dunn and Izaak Walton Killam, provided funds for the Council. While the Council reported on its activities to the govern-

ment, it was meant to be independent so that it could not be used for propaganda purposes. The Governor General's Literary Awards, which had been started in 1936, were now administered by the Canada Council. The formation of the Council was timely. In the late 1950s and early 1960s, there was a great outburst of Canadian artistic activity, although the debate over American influences continued.

The Theatre

In the same year that the Canada Council was formed (1957), the Festival Theatre was built in Stratford. Stratford's theatre community had been active for several years already. Businessman Tom Patterson had persuaded the famous director, Tyrone Guthrie, to become the artistic director of a tent theatre in the town in 1952. In its first season in 1953, the Stratford Shakespearean Festival put on Richard III. Opening night was hailed by the drama critic of The Globe and Mail as "the most exciting night in the history of Canadian theatre." Year after year the



The Stratford Theatre opened in 1953. Many of Canada's most talented actors got their start at Stratford.

crowds continued to come and the festival outgrew the tent. A permanent theatre was constructed.

Stratford's success became an inspiration for theatres across the country. Drama lovers built the Neptune Theatre in Halifax, the Manitoba Theatre Centre in Winnipeg, Theatre New Brunswick in Fredericton, and similar theatres in many other centres across Canada. Thanks to Stratford and these other theatres. Canadian actors have become internationally known. These include Kate Reid, Jessica Tandy, Lorne Greene, Margot Kidder, William Shatner, Kate Nelligan, Christopher Plummer, Donald Sutherland, Brent Carver, Richard Monette, and Gordon Pinsent. Though some of these performers went to the United States or Europe to establish their reputations, many got their start in Canadian theatres such as Stratford.

The Ballet

In 1951, a 29-year-old ballerina named Celia Franca founded the National Ballet of Canada. Franca, with Betty Oliphant,

Karen Kain graduated from the National Ballet School in 1969 and joined the National Ballet Company. During her career, she was one of the most renowned ballet dancers in the world.



travelled more than 8000 km across Canada in search of talent. Three hundred auditions were held in schools and public halls. Twenty-eight dancers were chosen. The company could only afford to pay the dancers \$25 per week, and \$5 more for performances. But they opened their company that year to rave reviews from audiences wherever they danced. Similar companies, such as the Royal Winnipeg Ballet and *Les Grands Ballets Canadiens* in Montreal, have also won an important place in the hearts of Canadians.

The Printed Word

Some of Canada's most internationally acclaimed novelists and poets emerged in the 1950s and 1960s. Many of them were recognized in Canada with Governor General's Awards. Farley Mowat's first book, *People of the Deer*, was published in 1952. Mowat wrote many other non-fiction and autobiographical works through the 1950s and 1960s. He won the Governor General's Award in the Juvenile Category in 1956 for *Lost in the Barrens*. This adventure story dealt with two boys, one Caucasian and one Cree, who were trying to survive in an arctic winter. Their lives were saved by an Inuit boy.

In the following year, 1957, one of Canada's most important post-war literary figures won the Fiction award—francophone (French-speaking) writer Gabrielle Roy for the novel translated as *Street of Riches*. Roy was already famous for her novel *Bonheur d'Occasion (The Tin Flute)*, published in 1945, about the lives of working-class people during the war. In 1959, new categories of awards were introduced to honour francophone writing.

This period also saw the emergence of such writers as Brian Moore (*The Lonely Passions of Judith Hearne*, 1955; *The Luck of Ginger Coffey*, 1960), Alice Munro (*Dance of the Happy Shades*, 1968), and

Margaret Laurence (*The Stone Angel*, 1964; *A Jest of God*, 1966; *The Fire Dwellers*, 1969). Laurence's *The Stone Angel* was a milestone in Canadian literature and introduced Canadians to the fictional town of Manawaka, where many of Laurence's works are set. It was also the first Canadian novel chosen as required reading for the "aggregate" examination in France's universities.

Another landmark Canadian novel, *The Apprenticeship of Duddy Kravitz* by Mordecai Richler, appeared in 1959. It is the story of an ambitious Jewish entrepreneur in Montreal. Although Canadian publication in 1969 came a full 10 years after the first British and American editions were published, it was followed by a movie in 1974 and a stage version in 1984. Winners of the Governor General's Award for poetry in this period included Leonard Cohen (who declined his 1968 award) and Margaret Atwood in 1966.

Television and Film

Before 1952, very few Canadians had television sets. Those who did watched American programs. When the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation (CBC) broadcast the first Canadian television show in Montreal on 6 September 1952 (and two nights later in Toronto), only 26 per cent of the population could see it. By 1954, the number of viewers had risen to 60 per cent of the population. The CBC became the second largest producer of television programming in the world. By 1957, both the English- and French-language networks were broadcasting 10 hours a day, and 85 per cent of Canadians had access to them. The person credited with the rapid introduction and expansion of Canadian television was J. Alphonse Ouimet.

The 1950s were referred to as the "Golden Age" of television because of the quality of programming. Shows such as



Watching television became a family activity in the 1950s, replacing other pastimes such as reading, craftwork, and board games.

Front Page Challenge and La Famille Plouffe were from this era. During the 1960s, CBC produced dramas such as Wojeck and Quentin Durgens MP, as well as information programs such as This Hour Has Seven Days, Man Alive, and The Nature of Things. Children were not left out: Mr. Dressup and The Friendly Giant were big favourites. Of all programs available starting in the 1950s, none was more popular than Hockey Night in Canada. Soon after it appeared in 1952, this program became a national institution—many have claimed that it brought the country together.

On 1 October 1966, the CBC started broadcasting television in colour. To promote Canadian programs, government rules mandated that Canadian broadcasts must be at least 80 per cent Canadianowned. Still, Canadians were extremely eager for American programming.

American influence was also strong in the Canadian film industry. Canada's National Film Board (NFB), established in 1939, had become one of the world's largest film studios by 1945. But it was no competition for the Hollywood movie-making machine. By 1947, the US motion-picture industry dominated Canadian film theatres, taking \$17 million out of Canada yearly.

C. D. Howe, Canada's Minister of Trade and Commerce, was faced with a dilemma. Should Canada try to keep American films out of Canada and promote the Canadian film industry, or find ways of making money from the spread of American movies into Canada? The Canadian Co-operation Project came up with this solution. Canada would give Hollywood movies access to the Canadian market provided Hollywood:

- improved its coverage of Canada in premovie newsreels
- made short films about Canada
- released NFB films in the United States
- · inserted Canadian scenes in Hollywood films

- promoted Canada in radio ads read by Hollywood stars
- made a film about the trade imbalance between Canada and the United States (Canada was importing far more from the US than it was exporting to the American market)
- hired a Canadian government representative to oversee the co-operation project (this representative would live in Hollywood and make sure American films included some dialogue that mentioned Canada and some location shots that showed Canada).

The Canadian Co-operation Project was in effect from 1947 to 1951. In 1954. the government took a small step in sup-





The Technological Edge

IMAX FILMS

In 1967, a Canadian company unveiled a new innovation in film technology at Expo 67. The company was Multi-Screen Corporation. The innovation was a large-screen process for movies that we now know as "IMAX." It was a revolutionary technology that allowed viewers to be completely immersed in what they were watching. No one who watches an IMAX movie leaves the theatre without being amazed.

The idea came from the large-screen experiments at Expo 67. It was developed by Canadians Graeme Ferguson, Roman Kroitor, Robert Kerr, and William Shaw. The system uses 70mm film (twice as wide as usual commercial film), which is turned on its side. When projected, it is 10 times the size of regular movies, with an image 8 stories high. In 1970, the world saw the first IMAX film, Tiger Child, commissioned by the Fuji Corporation of Japan for Expo 70. In 1971, the first permanent IMAX cinema was opened in the Cinesphere at Ontario Place in Toronto. In 1973, IMAX had introduced another innovation-OMNIMAX, an IMAX dome cinema with a curved screen.

Apart from developing the technology, IMAX also makes movies (now over 100), distributes them, and designs theatres in which to show them. There are more than 129 IMAX theatres around the world. Many filmmakers from the National Film Board have also made IMAX films and reflect the excellence of Canadians in the field of documentary filmmaking. In 1986 and again in 1997, IMAX won Academy Awards for scientific and technical achievement in movies.

In 1991, IMAX also won an award for contributions to Canadian culture from the Canadian Department of Communications. But like many other Canadian companies, IMAX was sold to an American company in 1994.

- 1. Have you ever seen an Imax film? Describe the experience. What was the subject of the film?
- 2. What effect do you think the sale of IMAX to an American company will have on its filmmaking?

porting Canadian film by granting a 60 per cent tax deduction for money invested in it. But it was not until 1967, with the founding of the Canadian Film Development Corporation (now Telefilm Canada) that the Canadian feature film industry was seriously supported by the government.

The Order of Canada

With growth in national pride came new ways of honouring Canadians and their culture. Appointments to the **Order of Canada** were first made in 1967 as part of the Centennial celebrations. Any Canadian who can claim distinguished or outstanding achievement can be appointed to the Order. There are limits on the number of people appointed at any one time, and there are three levels of membership: Companions, Officers, and Members.

Companions are people of "outstanding achievement and merit of the highest degree." There can be no more than 150 Companions at any one time. Officers are people with "achievement and merit of a high degree." A limit of 46 are appointed each year. Members are people who have performed "distinguished service in or to a particular locality, group, or field activity." Up to 92 Members are appointed each year. The badge of the Order is in the shape of a six-point snowflake with a maple leaf at the centre. The motto on the award is *Desiderantes meliorem patriam* ("They desire a better country").

O Popular Culture

The 1950s and 1960s were also an era of new directions in popular culture. It was the age of rock'n'roll, hippies, and protest songs. Again, foreign influences—from both Britain and the United States—had an effect on popular culture in Canada. But Canadians also developed some of their own unique talents, particularly in the area of folk music.

Rock'n'roll hit the world in 1954 when American Elvis Preslev made his first recordings. Elvis had star quality, youth, sex appeal, and a dynamic singing style. By 1957, Elvis Presley had become the most important symbol of North America's new youth culture. It was a culture that was changing music, everyday pastimes, and social values. When Presley visited Toronto in April 1957, 24 000 teenagers packed Maple Leaf Gardens for two shows. He gyrated through his hits "Love Me Tender," "Hound Dog," and "Heartbreak Hotel." The show ended with Elvis flinging himself to his knees, sweat pouring down his face, and people screaming and crying for more.

What made rock'n'roll so popular with the teenagers of the 1950s? For one thing, it was a way for them to express themselves against the adult world. It seemed to deal with the feelings and concerns of



Elvis Presley became the "King" of rock'n' roll. Why did rock'n' roll have such wide appeal for young people in the 1950s? youth. A second factor was just as important. Teenagers in the 1950s had money to buy their own radios, records, and record players. Music became an obsession for many as youth-oriented radio shows gained large audiences.

By the 1960s, many young people were rejecting the values and materialism of their parents' generation. The term "counterculture" came into the language. The cultural standards among youth ran counter to everything they saw as part of the "establishment"—police, values of parents, government, big business. Mini-skirts, long hair, tie-dyed T-shirts, beads, and brightly coloured bell-bottom pants replaced the grey-flannel-suit look of their parents. Many young people "turned on" to drugs. Marijuana, LSD, amphetamines, and barbiturates were all part of the counterculture. In districts such as Yorkville in Toronto, mobile clinics were set up to rescue young people on "bad trips" from taking drugs.

A subgroup of the counterculture, **hippies**, rebelled by dropping out of soci-

The Beatles burst on the scene in the 1960s. They began a revolution in popular music.



ety. Outwardly, they rejected many of society's values. Some went "back to the land" where they tried living in communes and raising organic foods. Many preached international peace and love. They wore their hair long and dressed exotically. And, like many of their peers in this generation, they experimented with drugs, especially marijuana.

In 1964, teenagers discovered the Beatles! To the shock of adults, young people copied shaggy Beatle haircuts, bought Beatle buttons, watches, wigs, dolls, and wallets, and repeated Beatle lyrics, such as "She loves you, yeah, yeah, yeah." Sociologists called "Beatlemania" a form of protest against the adult world. They said it could not last. The experts were wrong. The boys from Liverpool, England, made some of the most important advances in popular music in their era.

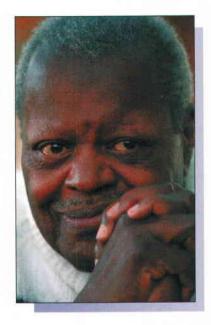
The 1960s was the decade of the "British invasion." Groups such as the Rolling Stones, the Dave Clark Five, Herman's Hermits, the Animals, and Peter and Gordon followed the Beatles' popularity in Canada and the United States. The 1950s was the era of the solo singer. But with the popularity of the Beatles, the 1960s saw the growth of musical groups. Songs by American groups such as the Beach Boys, Creedance Clearwater Revival, the Monkees, and Led Zeppelin went to the top of the charts. Some Canadian groups also prospered, such as the Guess Who and Lighthouse.

Motown music, designed to make music sound good on car radios and jukeboxes, featured Black singers such as Stevie Wonder, Aretha Franklin, and James Brown. Teenagers loved to dance in the 1960s. The driving music of Janis Joplin, Jimi Hendrix, and Jim Morrison and the Doors got everyone dancing.

Bob Dylan was known as America's foremost folk singer. Many of his songs,

such as "Blowing in the Wind," "The Times They Are a 'Changing," and "Don't Think Twice, It's All Right" became top 40 hits. As youth rebellions and protests against the establishment gained momentum, Bob Dylan's words and music became the anthems of a generation. A Toronto bar band gained international fame when it became linked to Bob Dylan. The band, known in the early 1960s as the Hawks, was the backing combo for Canadian rockabilly singer Ronnie Hawkins.

In 1965, the Hawks became Bob Dylan's new backing band. By 1968, the Hawks had renamed themselves The Band, and their first two albums (*Music From Big Pink* in 1968 and *The Band* in 1969) have been credited with redefining rock 'n' roll in the late 1960s. (Big Pink was the name of the pink house in New York where Dylan and The Band recorded many songs together.) The Band was made up of four Canadians—Robbie Robertson, Rick Danko, Richard Manuel,



Canadian jazz pianist Oscar Peterson won widespread acclaim during the 1950s. He continues to be one of Canada's most respected artists.

Garth Hudson—and American Levon Helm.

Other important Canadian rock and folk voices in the 1960s included Ian and Sylvia, Gordon Lightfoot, Buffy Sainte-Marie, Joni Mitchell, and Neil Young.

?

Developing Skills: Interviewing

An interview is a face-to-face meeting between people to talk about a topic or issue. Usually one or both parties want to obtain information. When you go for an interview for a summer job, you want to know about the job and whether you have the skills to do it. The employer wants to know whether you are the right person for the job.

Journalists make their living conducting interviews. Barry Broadfoot is a newspaper reporter and social historian who has collected information through interviews. He travelled across Canada talking to people about their experiences. The interviews are collected in books describing what life was like during the Great Depression and World War II. The books and interviews are an important part of our oral history.

There were three secrets to Broadfoot's success. He went armed with a tape recorder, he did thorough background research, and he went prepared with good questions. You can collect valuable information about the culture of the 1950s and 1960s by interviewing someone who was a teenager during one of those decades. Use the questionnaire on the next page or make up one of your own. Share with the class what you discover in the interviews.

Steps for an Effective Interview

1. Know your purpose. What information are you after? In this case, you want to know more about teenage culture in the 1950s or 1960s.

- 2. Prepare well in advance by researching the topic. You need to be well informed to ask intelligent questions. For example, some research will tell you that television did not come into most people's homes until the 1950s. With this knowledge, you can ask whether the person had a television and what shows were popular.
- 3. Write out questions beforehand. The right question is the only way to get the right information. You could decide on key topics you want to cover such as clothing styles, music, etc. These topics will help you focus your questions.
- 4. Be flexible. Think of secondary or follow-up questions to get deeper explanations. Listen actively to what the person is saying and encourage him or her to expand on a topic that may uncover some interesting information.
- 5. Make arrangements with the person to be interviewed at a convenient time and place. Make sure the arrangements are comfortable.

- 6. Write down as much information as you can or take an audio or video recorder. Always get permission to tape the interview from the person you are interviewing and know how the machine operates. Practise before the interview.
- 7. Finish the interview with an open-ended question such as: "Do you have anything else to add?" Valuable information may be overlooked if you use only your directed questions.
- 8. Expand your notes as soon as possible after the interview.
- 9. Practise good manners. Be on time. Thank the person at the end of the interview, and send a thank you letter afterward.
- 10. Share the results of your interview with your classmates.

Sample Questionnaire

Subject's Name:	
Interviewer's Name:	
Approximate age of the subject during the 1950s or 1960s:	

- 1. Background: When and where did you attend high school? What are your best memories of high school?
- 2. Fashion: What styles of clothing do you associate with the 1960s? Describe your favourite outfit. Did you wear anything that could be described as outrageous? If so, describe it.
- 3. *Music:* What types of music did teenagers listen to in the 1960s? Who were your favourite male and female artists and groups? What were the themes of the popular songs?
- 4. *Movies:* Do you recall any movies that you watched during the Sixties? What were the themes of films during this time? Who were your favourite movie stars?
- 5. Television: Did your family have television in the 1960s? What were your favourite TV shows?
- 6. Attitudes: Did you feel there was a generation gap between you and your parents? If so, explain.
- 7. *Protests:* What protest movements do you associate with the decade? Were you personally involved in any?
- 8. What is your happiest memory of being a teenager? Do you have any other memories of the 1960s that you would like to share?

Activities

Understand Facts and Concepts

1. Add these new terms to your Factfile.

Expo 67

point system (of immigration)

Ouiet Revolution

separatism

Front de Libération du Québec (FLQ)

Parti Québécois

sovereignty

Royal Commission on Bilingualism and

Biculturalism

Official Languages Act

Royal Commission on National Development in the Arts, Letters, and Sciences

Canada Council for the Arts

Order of Canada

counterculture

hippies

Beatlemania

- 2. The Canadian population changed considerably after World War II. What factors brought about this change? Give examples.
- 3. What were the causes and goals of the Quiet Revolution in Quebec?
- 4. a) In the 1950s and 1960s Canadians became increasingly concerned about American domination of Canadian culture. What areas were at the most risk?
 - b) What did the government do about the situation?

Think and Communicate

- 5. a) Using an organizer, outline the pros and cons of the "point system" of immigration.
 - b) Do you think this system was non-discriminatory? Justify your answer. What other factors would you include?
- 6. If you were a French Canadian living in Quebec in the 1960s, would you have joined the separatist movement? Why or why not? Use a decision-making organizer in your answer.
- 7. a) What are the special symbols that represent your school or community? How do you feel when you see these symbols used?
 - b) Why are symbols, such as a flag, important to a country? Do you think Canada should have gotten its own flag in 1964? Why would some groups of people be strongly opposed to a new flag?
 - c) Identify some other symbols that represent Canada. What aspects of Canada do these symbols emphasize?
- 8. Is it important that cultural activities such as the ballet, opera, and orchestral music are protected when more popular culture is not? Present your point of view.

9. The following words are teenage slang expressions from the 1960s. Find out what the words mean. How do these expressions reflect the counterculture of the decade?

a) bread

e) far out

b) rap

f) out of sight

c) groovy

g) good vibes

d) flower child

h) psychedelic

10. a) Listen to music by Canadian performers from the 1950s or 1960s. What major themes are expressed in the songs? How do the songs reflect a decade in which youth rebelled or protested against the "establishment"?

b) What influences from the 1960s can you still see in music and fashions today?

Apply Your Knowledge

- 11. Imagine you are asked to design a flag for Canada. Display your design on a card or create it on computer. It should be as simple as possible. Look at illustrations of flags from around the world to see which ones are the most effective. Points to consider in your design include: historical factors, desirable symbols, ease of recognition, and the impression you want to create of the country.
- 12. Do you think that Canadian students (outside Quebec) who take French in school are more likely to be sympathetic toward Quebec's aspirations? Explain your point of view.
- 13. Today, there are many American television shows from the 1950s and 1960s shown on re-runs. Using an organizer, show the differences between the shows of then and now.

Get to the Source

14. a) The Bi and Bi Commission challenged both English and French Canadians to make serious changes in their attitudes. Read the quote below from the Royal Commission.

From evidence so far accumulated, it appears to us that English-speaking Canadians as a whole must come to recognize the existence of a vigorous French-speaking society within Canada, and to find out more about the aspirations, frustrations, and achievements of French-speaking Canadians, in Quebec and outside it. They must come to understand what it means to be a member of a minority, or of a smaller partner people, and to be ready to give that minority assurances which are unnecessary for a majority. More than a century ago, Sir John A. Macdonald wrote to an English-speaking friend: 'Treat them as a nation and they will act as a free people generally dogenerously. Call them a faction and they become factious! They have to face the fact that, if Canada is to continue to exist, there must be a true partnership, and that the partnership must be worked out as between equals. They must be prepared to discuss in a forthright, open-minded way the practical implications of such a partnership.'

On the same evidence, it seems to us that French-speaking Canadians for their part must be ready to respond positively if there are to be truly significant developments towards a better partnership. It would be necessary for French-speaking Quebeckers to restrain their present tendency to concentrate so intensely on their own affairs and to look so largely inward. Problems affecting all Canada are their problems too. They would need to beware of the kind of thinking that puts 'la nation' above all other considerations and values. They too, like the English-speaking, should forget the conquest and any psychological effects they think it left. They would have to avoid blaming English-speaking Canadians for shortcomings which are their own and, at times, to remember that English-speaking Canadians have their feelings too. They, as well as the English-speaking must remember that, if a partnership works, each party must give as well as get.

- a) Make a two-column chart in your notebook and label the columns "What English Canadians should do" and "What French Canadians should do." Summarize in your own words the recommendations to both cultural groups.
- b) Do you think the recommendations were sound? Explain.



Prosperity, Protest, and New Politics

*

The Baby Boom

The post-war years in Canada were the era of the **baby boom**. In just 15 years between 1946 and 1961, Canada's population increased by 50 per cent, from 12 to 18 million. Hard times during the Depression and World War II had kept people from having big families in the 1930s and 1940s. People put off getting married. When they did marry, they put off having children for as long as they could.



The baby boom created a major demand for new schools.

In the 1950s, the future looked promising again. The post-war years saw an economic boom. People were ready to have more children. Four million Canadian babies were born in the 1950s alone. An improved health system also meant that fewer babies died. The baby boom made the 1950s and 1960s an era of youth, and many of these young people had pocket money and allowances to spend. They added to the new "consumer age."

But the baby boom also brought some challenges. Five years after the boom started there was a desperate need for more schools and teachers. The 1961 school population was twice that of the 1946 population! Since Canada was industrialized and moving into an era of technological innovation, workers needed to stay in school longer. In the mid-1960s, the baby boomers increased the demand for colleges and universities.

As the baby boomers started to enter the workforce or attend college, they challenged traditional values and actively worked for change. The 1960s was the era of protest move-

ments. The women's liberation movement, the labour movement, Aboriginal political movements, and movements for peace, civil rights, and human rights were just some of them.

- 1. What was the baby boom?
- 2. a) How do you think the baby boom might benefit Canadian society and the economy?
 - b) What challenges do you think it could pose?



Suburbs and Urbanization

With the population explosion in the 1950s, families needed new homes. Many people had been too poor in the 1930s to build or buy new homes. During the war, there had been a shortage of building materials. In the 1950s, people believed peaceful and prosperous times were returning, and many Canadians went on a home-buying spree. Men and women returning from the war and new immigrants also needed homes. **Suburbs** mushroomed around the major cities.

These new communities made home ownership possible for more people. Land was less expensive on the outskirts of cities than it was in the central downtown areas. As more Canadians bought cars and new transit lines were built, it was possible to live farther away from the workplace. Developers began to build planned communities centred around neighbourhood plazas or schools. The Central Mortgage and Housing Corporation (CMHC), formed by the federal government in 1946, also helped people own their own homes. It offered low-cost loans for mortgages and included a home-building program.

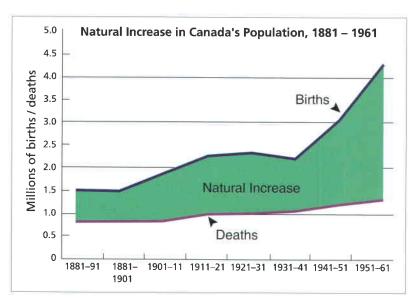
People flocked to new detached bungalows with big picture windows, spacious lawns front and back, and an attached garage or carport. New fads in home design and decorating took hold. Inside, white woodwork was popular. Living rooms often featured three walls painted one colour, with the fourth covered with wallpaper. Kitchens had the latest in new electrical appliances such as pop-up toasters and coffeepots.

Living in the suburbs gave people not only more physical space, but also a sense of more "mental and emotional space." Each member of a family could have his or her "own space"—a room to themselves. Children often had a bedroom of

THE REAL PROPERTY.	D	lation	Marian II	
I ne	Pobli	Iation	EXDI	osion
	I VNM	116461911		

Number of births per 1000 women 1941	87	
Number of births per 1000 women 1951	109	
Average age a woman married 1941	25.4	
Average age a woman married 1961	22	

Immigration added to the population explosion. Two million immigrants came to Canada between 1946 and 1961. Most went to Canada's urban areas.



What happened to the natural increase in Canada's population after 1945?

their own. Many homes also had recreation rooms, often in basements, where children could gather and play. Living rooms featured a radio, television, and record player.

Not all Canadians could afford these new homes and fads, but suburban development was a phenomenon of the 1950s. By 1961, 11 million of Canada's 18 million people lived in urban places, many in the new suburbs.



Technological changes accompanied the new lifestyle of the 1950s. The growth of suburbs went hand in hand with an upsurge in driving and new car styles. Canadians bought over 3.5 million passenger cars in the 1950s. Each year's model seemed to grow longer, lower, and wider. North Americans believed that "bigger was better," so enormous V8 engines and power steering became added features. Two-tone colours, plenty of chrome, and outlandish tail fins became the fads of the 1957 and 1958 models. They were sometimes called "chrome ships."

Gas was cheap and Canadians seemed to drive everywhere. Instead of shopping downtown or on "Main Street," Canadians headed for shopping centres. Shopping malls were another new invention of the 1950s. Plazas were designed to serve suburban communities and the automobile. Rows of stores faced a parking lot where customers could drive in for one-stop shopping convenience.

Television

More Canadians had money to spend in the post-war years, and Canada became a consumer society. The appliance that everyone wanted first was a television set. TV did not become widespread in Canada until the 1950s. The screens were small and the picture was in black and white, often lost in a snowstorm of dots. Even though both the picture quality and programs were limited at first, television caught on quickly in urban centres. Television was not available in the less populated regions of Canada until years later.

Family life underwent great changes because of television. Families that used to go to church on Sunday evening, play games, or visit relatives, suddenly found themselves watching the Ed Sullivan Show. If your family was the first on the block to have a set, you invited the neighbours in to watch. They were motioned to sit down and be quiet. There was no time for conversation. Eating habits changed when families bought TV tables so they could eat their meals in front of the set. Children were watching so much television that homework suffered. Children's viewing habits became an urgent topic at hundreds of parent-teacher association meetings.

Among the favourite Canadian shows and entertainers were comedians Wayne and Shuster, Tommy Hunter on *Country Hoedown*, *Front Page Challenge*, and *Hockey Night in Canada*.



Cars in the 1950s were large, long, and low with distinctive tail fins. They were a symbol of post-war prosperity.

Other Technologies

Television was not the only major technological change. The post-war years were a period of major discoveries. American Dr. Jonas Salk invented the polio vaccine and ended the scourge of infantile paralysis. The DNA molecule was discovered by British scientists James Watson and Francis Crick. The "big bang" theory about the creation of the universe was first published. The transistor, invented by Bell Telephone scientists, appeared. Jet airplanes took people around the world.

The 1950s and 1960s were also the "plastic age." No other industry brought about such dramatic changes in everyday culture. Many things once made of other materials began to be manufactured from plastics. These included building materials, clothing and accessories such as belts and handbags, hi-fi records, car interiors, and kitchen utensils. It became common to say "using the plastic," meaning the credit card.

Changes in technology, consumer products, and global trade went hand in hand in the 1950s and 1960s. Toy space guns were a good example. Before the "Space Race" between the United States and the Soviet Union began in 1958, science fiction characters such as Buck

Rogers were popular. Children played with heavy metal toy space guns made in the United States. But when NASA began competing with the Soviet space agency to travel in space, children's space toys became much more sophisticated. Plastic allowed for more flexible designs and sturdier, more varied shapes. But American manufacturers were not as skilled in making toys with plastic as they had been with tin.



In the 1950s, there was no fad quite like hula-hooping— keeping a plastic hoop whirling around your body. The idea was supposed to have come from Australia.

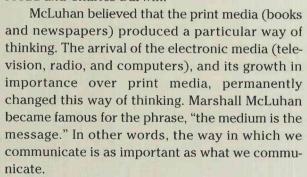




SPOTLIGHT ON ...

Marshall McLuhan

Marshall McLuhan became famous in the 1960s for his studies on the way the mass media affect our lives and behaviour. Born in Edmonton in 1911, he studied literature in Manitoba and Cambridge, England. He later became a professor of English at the University of Toronto. His contribution to the field of communications and to the way we see the world was so important that his work has been compared to other great thinkers such as Sigmund Freud and Charles Darwin.



Another famous phrase coined by McLuhan is "the **global village**." He was describing the modern world, in which electronic media have



removed the barriers that long distances used to pose. Today, we can find out about any event within minutes of it happening. McLuhan was a visionary in his development of these ideas. As early as 1964, he forecast the effects of the Internet and Virtual Reality. He also wrote about the power of mass media advertising in influencing people's ideas. McLuhan died in Toronto in 1980.

- 1. Television changed family life in a number of concrete ways. A later innovation predicted by McLuhan—the Internet—has also changed people's routines and interactions. Describe these changes. How do they compare with the changes television brought?
- 2. Each period of history takes its character from its major form of communication. The electronic age brings all parts of the world in contact with each other, making the world seem, as McLuhan described, more like a village than a set of distant, separate nations. What are the advantages and disadvantages of the global village?

Asian governments, such as those in Hong Kong, China, South Korea, and Taiwan, made plastics one of their top-priority industries. They limited imports of plastics into their countries to increase the demand for their own plastic products. With the large profits they made, the firms could reduce the prices on their exports. As a result, Asian plastic toys monopolized the North American market in the 1950s and 1960s.

Other regions of the world joined the plastics revolution. In the 1960s, European designers, especially in Italy, introduced inflatable furniture and molded "Go Go" chairs to consumers. Many improvements in sporting goods came from plastics research in the military. For example, the reinforced plastic invented for the Minuteman Intercontinental Ballistic Missile (ICBM) in 1959 was later used in golf club shafts, fly rods, and tennis rackets.

The New Prosperity

The 1950s and 1960s are often called an age of affluence. In other words, more people were well-off and had money to spend on homes, cars, and other consumer goods. Between 1946 and 1960, average incomes in Canada nearly doubled. Most Canadians enjoyed a higher standard of living than they had in the prewar years.

Industries in Canada were expanding and taking advantage of new global markets. Farming was not as important to the Canadian economy as it had been before World War II. Workers were finding jobs in the growing manufacturing, oil and gas, and public service areas of the economy. Farm workers had made up 25 per cent of the total workforce in 1946, but by 1961 this figure had dropped to 11 per cent.

In a sense, the Leduc oil discovery in Alberta marked the beginning of the postwar economic boom in Canada. On 13 February 1947, a tall pillar of flame and smoke shot up into the Alberta winter sky. The Leduc Number 1 oil well near Edmonton had just come in!

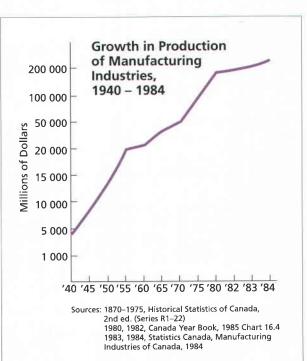
Oil company crews had been exploring in Canada's West since 1913. But until the Leduc strike, about 90 per cent of Canada's total output was coming from the Turner Valley near Calgary and the Norman Wells in the Northwest Territories. By 1947, Turner Valley production was falling off by about 10 per cent a year. When Leduc Number 1 started pumping, oil hysteria swept the country again. Almost overnight, sleepy little towns near Edmonton became boom towns. Soon, more than 1200 wells were steadily producing in the Leduc area.

In every area of economic activity, new production records were set. At no time before had Canada experienced such tremendous expansion. The Ford Motor Company opened a huge automobile plant near Oakville, Ontario, and General Motors built a plant in Ste-Thérèse, Quebec. North Star aircraft were being manufactured in Montreal, and Hamilton steel mills were rolling out steel for Alberta oil pipelines.

New mining operations also sprang up across the country. When the Ungava Peninsula in northern Quebec became the centre of high-grade iron ore mining operations, tent cities sprang up in the bush. A great aluminum smelter was built at Kitimat far up the British Columbia coast. Construction began on a railway to Great Slave Lake to help develop mining resources in the Northwest Territories. Uranium from northern Saskatchewan and from Elliot Lake and Bancroft in Ontario went into the production of new American nuclear weapons. Britain and the United States contracted to buy as much uranium as Canada could produce.



Netsurfer
Visit the Statistics Canada
site at http://statcan.ca
for information on the
Canadian economy.







SPOTLIGHT ON ...

Two Canadian Industrialists

Kenneth Colin Irving

"K.C. Irving is New Brunswick." This statement reflected the enormous amount of money K.C. Irving invested in the province of New Brunswick. Irving was a powerful Canadian industrialist who helped develop a wide variety of industries, including pulp and paper, oil refining, publishing, and broadcasting.

Irving was born into a well-todo family in 1899 in Buctouche, New Brunswick. He attended university

in the Maritimes for a short time before joining the Royal Flying Corps in World War I. After the war, he took over a Ford motor agency and Imperial Oil service station. In 1924, when Imperial Oil withdrew his right to sell its products, he borrowed enough money to start the Irving Oil Company. He soon had many service stations and garages, and was competing with Imperial Oil head on.

In the 1930s, Irving took over some bus and trucking firms and opened new transportation routes. When his father died in 1933, he took over the family lumber business. "K.C." later purchased the New Brunswick Railway because it controlled a lot of timber land he wanted. In the process of harvesting timber, he also established reforestation practices.

By 1951, Irving Pulp and Paper Ltd. dominated the New Brunswick timber industry. It gave Irving a ready supply of pulp for the many Maritime newspapers he owned. His network of service stations expanded, he started a tanker building operation, and in 1960 the Irving oil refinery was built in Saint John. Much of Irving's success came from vertical integration. In other words, he used his profits to buy more businesses that his companies



relied on. The oil refinery supplied his gas stations, ocean tankers transported oil to his refinery, and bus lines bought his oil and gasoline.

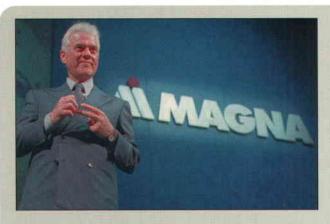
K.C. Irving's industries created thousands of jobs in an area plagued by unemployment. He also provided training for his employees. But K.C. Irving was also a controversial figure. Some people felt he had too much control over New Brunswick's economy. He bought out most of his competitors and

had a reputation for being anti-union. Everywhere they went, New Brunswickers were affected by Irving and his companies. When K.C. Irving died in 1992, he owned 300 different companies and was ranked as one of the top 20 richest people in the world.

Frank Stronach

Frank Stronach is one of the most successful Canadian businessmen of the post-war period. He was born in a small town called Weiz, Austria, in 1932. He grew up in a working-class neighbourhood and left school at 14 to become an apprentice in a tool and die making shop. In 1954, he immigrated to Canada with only a suitcase and a few hundred dollars. He opened his first business, Multimatic Investments Ltd., in Toronto in 1957.

From a modest beginning, Stronach's business grew into Magna International Inc., Canada's largest automotive parts manufacturer. Today, the company is the world's most diversified auto parts supplier, with 24 000 employees in 100 manufacturing facilities. Stronach gained business by using the company's own technical expertise to solve design and assembly problems for the big



auto manufacturers. While much of Canada's auto manufacturing was owned by American firms, Stronach built a major and highly successful Canadian company.

Stronach has been criticized for using nonunion workers. He defends his policy by pointing to his "Fair Enterprise" system, which guarantees the right of employees, management, and investors to share in profits. Everyone who works at Magna has a stake in its success.

- 1. What qualities do you think make industrialists such as K.C. Irving and Frank Stonach successful?
- 2. What are the advantages and disadvantages of these large business enterprises owned by major industrialists?
- 3. What is your opinion of Stronach's "Fair Enterprise" system? Find out if other companies use a similar system.

Potash development in Saskatchewan did much to improve the economy of that province in the 1950s. The construction of refineries, processing plants, and the world's longest oil and gas pipeline added to the prosperity of the West. The Prairie Provinces were finally able to shake off the 20 terrible years of dust bowl and depression.

New products and resources became the driving force behind Canada's economy. For a long time, wheat had been Canada's leading export. Now wheat stood in third place on Canada's trade list. Newsprint and lumber moved into first and second place. Next came resources that were unknown or reasonably unimportant exports before World War II-aluminum, uranium, asbestos, oil and natural gas, iron ore, and chemical products. With the development of these new industries, Canada's economy became more diversified. A number of prominent industrialists came to the forefront in this era of economic growth. It was a time in which companies expanded into new areas.



Not every part of Canada benefited from the post-war economic boom. In the 1950s and 1960s, there were still differences in economic prosperity from one region of the country to another. These differences were referred to as **regional disparity**. Regional disparity was based on differing resources, climates, population densities, and manufacturing facilities. In the 1950s and 1960s, resource-based and manufacturing industries were the main source of wealth. Some regions had greater resource and industrial potential than others.

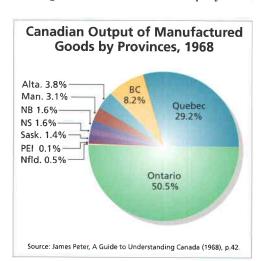
With the falling demand for coal, fish, and farm produce, many people in the Atlantic provinces found themselves out of work or making only a basic living. The region had few other natural resources to develop. Many people were forced to move to other areas of Canada. The region lost 15 per cent of its population between 1951 and 1971. As people and workers left,

the growth of the economy was hindered even more. It was a vicious cycle.

The West continued to be a supplier of resources to Central Canada (Ontario and Quebec). Wheat, timber, minerals, and other products were shipped eastward. Manufacturing industries in these regions had difficulty competing with industries in Central Canada because of continuing high transportation costs. Industries in Central Canada benefited most from the growth in manufacturing. In 1957, Ontario produced over 50 per cent of total manufacturing in the country.

In the 1940s, the government began to consider ways to deal with the problem of regional disparity. In 1957, the first **equalization payments** were made. Equalization payments are funds the federal government gives to provinces to ensure basic equality of services across the country. For example, provinces receive funds to raise education and social services to the national average. In 1962 and 1967, equalization payments increased. The provinces receiving these payments could spend them any way they wanted.

Another series of programs was created in 1962. These programs did not use direct payments to provinces. Instead, their goal was to create employment



opportunities through job training, the building of industrial parks, spending on schools and social services, and development of **infrastructure** (roads, bridges, power lines, hospitals, etc.—the basic structures needed for economic development). By 1967, the Department of Regional Economic Expansion (DREE) was in charge of these programs. It provided grants for new factories, job training, and health and social services in areas of need. In some provinces, federal and provincial governments shared the costs of the programs. In economically depressed provinces, the federal government paid a larger share of the costs.

But the effects were limited. One Atlantic official remarked that the millions of dollars Ottawa pumped into the region only "kept the gap [of regional disparity] from widening." The Diefenbaker government helped western farmers with measures such as crop insurance, but the programs did not eliminate the roots of many problems. Disparities continued to exist.

Infrastructure Development

The construction of the **St. Lawrence Seaway** was one of the most spectacular projects in the 1950s. It was also an example of the strong ties binding the Canadian and American economies.

For years, Canadian and American officials had talked of expanding this great inland waterway so that ocean-going ships could travel as far as the western end of Lake Superior. They also hoped to harness the rapids on the St. Lawrence River for hydroelectric power. Both Ontario and New York State desperately needed the extra power that this project could produce.

Although the joint plan had been discussed thoroughly, American officials

hesitated. American railroad companies were afraid they would lose business if ocean vessels could sail directly to cities such as Detroit and Chicago. In 1951, Canada decided to go ahead with the construction of the St. Lawrence Seaway on its own. Only at the last minute did the Americans decide to join in. The United States may have realized that once built, the Seaway would be entirely within Canadian territory and control unless the project was a joint agreement.

The planning and design of the seaway, and most of the construction, were carried out by Canadians. The control dam required by the power project flooded a large area between Cornwall and Iroquois in Ontario. Entire towns and villages had to be relocated, and new homes were built for 6500 people. Sixty-five kilometres of the CNR were rerouted and Highway 2 was relocated. The St. Lawrence Seaway was officially opened on 26 June 1959 by Queen Elizabeth II, representing Canada, and President Eisenhower, representing the United States.

A wild and bitter debate over American control of the Canadian economy broke out in Parliament in 1956. The Liberals had decided to finance the building of a **trans-Canada pipeline**. The pipeline would carry natural gas from Alberta to markets in Ontario, Quebec, and the United States. The company entrusted with building the pipeline was a private syndicate made up of more American than Canadian businesspeople.

In Parliament, the opposition asked pointed questions. Why was the government loaning \$118 million to a pipeline company that was 83 per cent Americanowned? How much of the natural gas would end up in the United States? Was the Trans-Canada Pipeline Company getting too generous a deal from the Canadian taxpayer?



C. D. Howe, the cabinet minister in charge of the pipeline, was impatient to get construction started. He did not want to sit around the House of Commons debating the issue. The government forced the bill through Parliament using closure (a rule limiting the time a bill could be discussed). The opposition raised a storm of protest, but the bill was passed by the Liberal majority.

Forcing the pipeline bill through Parliament hurt the St. Laurent government. Now John G. Diefenbaker, leader of the Conservatives, had a major issue on which to fight the next election. Diefenbaker claimed that by using closure, the Liberals had trampled on the rights of Parliament. He thundered that this was one more example of the American takeover of the Canadian economy.

In the federal election of June 1957, Diefenbaker's Conservatives won a minority government. By this time, Lester Pearson had become leader of the Liberal party. The following year, in another election, the Conservative party won a landIn its time, the St.
Lawrence Seaway was
the most advanced
waterway engineering
project in the world.
The amounts of cargo
shipped through the
Seaway reached
record levels of over
50 million tonnes a
year in the late 1970s.

slide victory. It was the largest majority any government had had since Confederation.

In 1958, Prime Minister Diefenbaker talked about his "vision" of Canada. He saw great promise in Canada's North. "Roads to resources" would be built to open the northland to development, settlement, and prosperity. Oil and mineral exploration would be increased. A great irrigation and power project would begin on the South Saskatchewan River. Federal money would help construct the Trans-Canada Highway. Diefenbaker also managed to arrange huge wheat sales to the People's Republic of China and other communist nations. In the 1950s prairie farmers were faced with massive quantities of wheat that they could not sell. Diefenbaker wanted all regions of Canada to share in the new prosperity.

In spite of his successes, Diefenbaker's appeal to Canadians began to fade. In 1959, both Canada and the United States went through an economic slowdown. Oil and mineral exploration in the North produced few results and not all government projects had succeeded. By 1962, unemployment figures in Canada had climbed higher than in any year since the Great Depression. In 1963, Lester Pearson and the Liberals were elected to government.

The Debate Over American Investment

In the post-war years, the debate over American investment in the Canadian economy was heating up. Before World War II, Canada's exports went mostly to Britain, and its imports came mostly from the United States. During the war, Canada's trade with Europe declined because of the U-boat menace. As a result, trade with the United States increased. In the post-war years, the United States became Canada's chief customer.

The American economy was booming after the war, and the United States was the fastest-growing market for goods in the world. As its close northern neighbour, Canada was in a position to take advantage of this huge market. Canada also had most of the resources the United States needed and wanted. The trade relationship between the two countries was strengthened by the tremendous flow of American capital (money and machinery) into Canada. American capital and technical expertise poured into the large-scale development of Canada's natural resources.

Many Canadians thought that American trade and investment was a positive development. Huge American markets for Canadian goods meant more jobs for Canadians and a high standard of living. Heavy American investment in Canada was helping to develop our resources and finance major industrial projects.

Some Canadians, however, warned that American domination of the Canadian economy was a serious threat. There was a real danger that some major industries such as oil, minerals, and paper could some day be completely owned by Americans. Canadian nationalists were alarmed by the growing trade imbalance: Canada was importing more goods from the United States than it was exporting across the border. As early as 1957, a royal commission on Canada's economic prospects, headed by Walter Gordon, warned of the danger of too much foreign ownership in the Canadian economy. It strongly advised the Canadian government to make policy decisions about this important issue.

Clearly, American control of large parts of the Canadian economy was a thorny problem. It was not until the 1970s that the government was poised to pass legislation that would put some control on foreign investment. By this time, the statistics spoke for themselves.



Developing Skills: Interpreting Data in Tables

You have probably come across tables of data in magazines, newspapers, and in your science, math, and geography classes. Tables are also useful in history. Tables are just a short-form way of communicating information. It would probably take several paragraphs to describe in sentences all the information you can present in a simple table. The secret to using tables effectively is to recognize their main features and understand how they present information.

Helpful Hints

- 1. Read the title. The title tells you the main purpose of the table. Why was it prepared? What is it about? What are the limits of its contents?
- 2. Note the units. What are the actual units that the numbers represent? The units are usually given in the title, in the columns or rows, or in the footnotes.
- 3. Scan the format. Tables are set up in columns, which present information vertically, and rows, which present information across the page. In the

table below, for example, the first column tells the year. The first row gives the Canadian export figures for three parts of the world in 1901.

4. Interpret the data. To determine any changes, increases, or decreases from the data in the table, you have to make comparisons. The table below is organized chronologically from 1901 to 1961. To see a pattern or trend in exports to each part of the world, you would have to read down the columns. But if you want to see which part of the world received most Canadian exports in 1901, you have to read across the top row.

If you want to know which area received the most exports at any time covered by the table, you have to use information from both columns and rows.

5. Note the source of the data. Knowing who compiled the data helps you to assess the accuracy of the information. Is it a reliable and unbiased source? The *Historical Atlas of Canada* is considered accurate and reliable.

Table 1
Canadian Commodity Exports, Selected Years, 1901–1961
(in millions of dollars)

	Column 1	Column 2	Column 3	Column 4
	Year	Canadian Exports to Britain and the Commonwealth	Canadian Exports to the United States	Canadian Exports to Other Countries
Row 1	1901	101	68	26
Row 2	1911	149	104	37
Row 3	1921	403	542	265
Row 4	1931	220	240	140
Row 5	1941	879	600	161
Row 6	1951	891	2 298	774
Row 7	1961	1 238	3 107	1 550

Source: Historical Atlas of Canada, Volume III.

Practise It!

Examine the information in Table 1. What conclusions can you draw from the data? Use the following questions as a guide.

- 1. In a sentence, state the purpose of the table and the years covered.
- 2. What are the two units used in the table?
- 3. a) In a sentence, explain what Column 3 tells you.
 - b) Explain what Row 2 tells you.
 - c) What does the figure in Column 3, Row 4 tell you?
- 4. a) What general trend or pattern over time do the data reveal about Canadian exports to Britain from 1901 to 1961?
 - b) What is the general trend in exports to the United States over the same period?

- c) What is the general trend in Canadian exports to the rest of the world over the same period?
- 5. Which area of the world received the most Canadian exports in 1911? in 1951? in 1961?
- 6. Which part of the world received the most Canadian exports between 1941 and 1961? In which year did this occur?
- 7. Suggest reasons why exports fell off in 1931. Why were exports to Britain in 1941 higher than exports to the United States?
- 8. Who was Canada's best customer in 1901? Who was Canada's best customer in 1951?
- 9. Examine Tables 2 and 3 below. State two conclusions you can draw from each table.

Table 2
Canadian Commodity Imports, Selected Years, 1901–1961
(in millions of dollars)

Year	Imports from Britain and the Commonwealth	Imports from the United States	Imports from Other Countries
1901	47	107	24
1911	129	276	48
1921	266	856	118
1931	152	394	82
1941	360	1 004	85
1951	727	2 813	545
1961	910	3 864	995

Source: Historical Atlas of Canada Volume III.

Table 3
Percentage of Foreign Ownership in Canada, Selected Years, 1900–1961

Year	Percentage of British Ownership	Percentage of American Ownership	Percentage of Other Foreign Ownership
1900	85	14	1
1910	77	19	4
1920	53	44	3
1930	36	61	3
1945	25	70	5
1950	20	76	4
1960	15	75	10

Source: Historical Atlas of Canada Volume III.

Social Support Programs

After World War II, Canada, the United States, and many of the more prosperous countries in Europe made certain commitments to their citizens. One was basic health care. The second was a minimum amount of financial support for children, unemployed people, and elderly citizens. A third was special services to disadvantaged people. Countries that made these commitments became known as **welfare states**, because governments were involved in people's welfare, or well-being.

Economic prosperity and the booming birth rate of the late 1940s and early 1950s contributed to the push for social programs. More of everything was needed—more schools, more health facilities, more housing—and more social welfare. After the Depression and the war, citizens also expected more from their governments. They were convinced governments could take action to improve their lives,



T. C. "Tommy" Douglas is recognized as the father of socialized medicine in Canada. As premier of Saskatchewan from 1944 to 1961, he introduced the first provincial health care legislation.

and they believed the government owed them a basic level of social services. Social services were seen more as a right rather than a privilege.

In Canada, there were also fears that unemployment rates would be high after the war. More than 800 000 veterans were returning looking for jobs, and many war industries (employing 900 000 workers) were shutting down. Until 1940, Canada's only social insurance measures were workmen's compensation (now called Workers'

FAST FORWARD

Every time a person deals with the government, he or she must produce a Social Insurance Number (SIN) card. This card was first introduced in April 1964, as part of a computer-monitoring system set up by the Unemployment Insurance Commission (UIC). Anyone who is employed must have a SIN, and employers are expected to check on this.

There are nine numbers on a SIN card. The first indicates the province of the cardholder; the last is a check number; the middle seven are the personal numbers of the cardholder. There are 99 million possible combinations. By 1998, 25 million cards had been issued.

Today, the SIN is used for more than just government business. It is often used as personal identification. For example, if you have ever been employed, your school records will have your SIN. But there are concerns about abuses. People are sometimes asked for their SIN in situations where it is improper, although not illegal. Examples include obtaining a phone or cashing a cheque. The biggest concern is that the SIN is a link to government data banks, which have extensive records on individual Canadians. Access to a person's SIN can lead to an invasion of the person's privacy. Many people expect that use of the SIN will decrease as more sophisticated computers are able to identify people without the SIN code.

Post-War Social Support Programs

Family Allowance

Family Allowance Act (1944) provided monthly cash allowances to families with children up to age 16. The amount of the allowance decreased after the fourth child.

Some French Canadians, who as a group had a higher birth rate than English Canadians, accused the government of penalizing large families with this sliding scale. The sliding scale for the fifth child onwards was cancelled in 1949.

A Youth Allowance to families with children between 16 and 18 was introduced in 1964.

Unemployment Insurance

Unemployment Insurance Act (1940) provided a limited take-home pay to urban, out-of-work wage earners.

Unemployment Assistance Act of 1956 covered a greater range of people. Money was given on the basis of a person's *need*, rather than just his or her *means* (available income and savings).

This was a great advance in the administration of social welfare. But it didn't work as hoped. Many people still suffered from poverty and inadequate assistance. Problems also arose with the assessment of need. Officials had to visit the homes of applicants and review their budgets, an intrusion that some people resented.

Health Care

In 1948, the federal government set up a system of national health grants to provinces. Health care was a provincial responsibility. This move came one year after Saskatchewan established the first universal public hospital insurance plan in Canada. A **universal plan** means that the service is available to everyone, rich and poor alike.

With the Hospital Insurance and Diagnostic Services Act (1957), the federal government covered about half the cost of provincial hospital insurance plans. By 1961, all Canada's provinces and territories had public hospital insurance plans.

Medical Care Act (1966) arranged cost-sharing between the federal government and the provinces to provide universal health care covering not only hospital costs, but also the costs of visits to the doctor.

Blind Persons Act (1951) and the Disabled Persons Act (1959) provided allowances to these groups. The allowances were based on a person's means, not needs, and the rules of the programs were quite rigid.

Old Age Security

Old Age Security Act (1951) provided a universal \$40 monthly pension from the federal government to all Canadians 70 years of age and older. The Old Age Assistance Act provided a \$40 monthly pension, financed by both federal and provincial money, to Canadians between 65 and 69 years of age if they needed it

In 1965 the age of eligibility for Old Age Security payments dropped from 70 to 65.

Canada and Quebec Pension Plans (1965) gave retiring workers an income that rose with increases in the cost of living. To finance the plans, workers and employers contributed to the fund every month. (The Quebec government did not want federal government interference in its provincial systems, so it introduced its own pension plan.)

Guaranteed Income Supplement Plan (1967) guaranteed retirees a minimum income.

Compensation) and the Old Age Pension Act passed in 1927 (which only applied to poor elderly and "blind persons"). During the war, the government had introduced Unemployment Insurance in 1940 (now called Employment Insurance) and Family Allowance in 1944. Following the war, existing social programs were expanded and new ones were introduced. The chart on page 348 summarizes the major changes.

Paying for the Programs

As coverage increased, the social programs cost more. In 1963, governments were spending \$3.9 billion on social support—about 12 per cent of the national income. The federal government's share was 69 per cent. Provincial governments contributed 28 per cent, and municipal governments paid for the rest. Some programs, such as the Canada and Quebec Pension Plans, were financed by employee and employer contributions.

A large share of government money for these programs comes from taxpayers—individuals, corporations, and countries exporting products into Canada (paying duties and "excise" taxes). Through the 1950s and 1960s, corporate income tax gradually contributed a decreasing share. Individual taxpayers paid more and more for social programs. But as the population got older, there were fewer individuals in the workforce paying income tax. Meanwhile, more people needed social assistance for the very reason that they were getting older.

In the 1960s, this was still only a problem in the making. The year 1961 was the peak of the baby boom, when youth made up 34 per cent of the total population. But people would begin to wonder if Canada's social programs could cope as the baby boomers got older (see Chapter 15).

How successful have social support programs been? Canada is admired by

many other nations in the world for the quality and scope of its social "safety net." But the programs have not been without problems and criticism. Some people feel corporations should be contributing more to the programs. Corporations point out that they also provide their employees with benefits, and suggest there is abuse of government programs. Even global trade is an issue. Some people worry that Canada's involvement in free trade will force it to lower its spending on social welfare so that producers can compete with their counterparts in countries such as the United States and Mexico (where social welfare standards are generally lower).

In 1969, a Senate inquiry showed that 1 in 4 Canadians lived below the poverty line. In 1985, after several years of inflation and a recession, an estimated 1 in 6 Canadians lived on low incomes. In 1995, according to the National Council of Welfare, 57.2 per cent of all families headed by women under 65 years of age and with children under 18 were poor. In the same year, over 43 per cent of elderly single women lived below the poverty line. The poverty rate of single people under 25 was 64.1 per cent. Many people argue that social support programs have not done enough to deal with poverty.

Health care has been a particularly challenging issue for all industrialized countries. There is a debate about whether governments should cover *all* costs or just *much* of the cost. On the one side are supporters of "single tier" health care—access to hospitals and medical services without user fees or private insurance charges. People argue that this is the best system for protecting poor and elderly citizens, and those with disabilities who may not be able to afford the additional charges.

But to provide health care for everybody, the system can become bogged down with long waiting lists and, some say, Health care cuts by the Ontario government in the 1990s led to demonstrations.



lower quality care. There is also the question of whether Canadian governments can continue to afford universal health care. Others argue that people should have the right to pay more for services

they want, especially if they want higher quality, faster, or more experimental care. Today's federal and provincial governments are struggling to resolve these issues

Canada's Economic Council claimed in 1983 that "Social goals and programs . . . contribute fundamentally to the smooth functioning of our economy, and they reflect the basic values of Canadians." Public opinion surveys back this up. Most Canadians do not want to see cuts to or cancellation of social programs. The challenge of the future will be finding ways to agree on who needs social welfare, and how to administer it fairly and efficiently.





SPOTLIGHT ON...

Two Prime Ministers

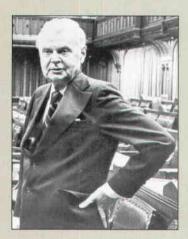
John Diefenbaker

Early one morning in 1909, a 14-year-old newsboy talked to Sir Wilfrid Laurier. The boy resolved then and there that one day he too would be prime minister. By 1958, John George Diefenbaker had reached his goal. He was the prime minister and leader of the party with the greatest majority in Parliament in Canadian history.

The road to political power had not been easy for John Diefenbaker. He was born in rural

Ontario near Owen Sound, but his family settled on a homestead in northern Saskatchewan in 1903. He spent one summer as a travelling bookseller and slept "in almost every haystack in Saskatchewan." In 1919, he graduated with a law degree from the University of Saskatchewan.

In his early career, Diefenbaker suffered many defeats. Four times he was defeated in provincial



and federal elections before he won a seat in the House of Commons in 1940. Twice he was rejected by the Conservative party for the leadership before they turned to him in 1956.

Diefenbaker was the first prime minister of Canada of neither British nor French heritage. He was intensely proud of his German background and was conscious that he represented a large number of Canadians who were neither British nor French. He brought

into politics the sort of people who had not been there before: a Chinese-Canadian member of Parliament and a Ukrainian-Canadian minister of labour. He appointed James Gladstone as the first Senator from an Aboriginal nation in 1959. For the first time a woman, Ellen Fairclough, was named to the federal Cabinet. Fairclough's appointment as Secretary of State represented a breakthrough

in public service for all women. Diefenbaker chose Georges Vanier to be the first French-Canadian Governor General.

Diefenbaker was also proud that he had come from a home-steading family in the West. He saw himself as the champion of the common person. Indeed, he had the tremendous ability to appeal to Canadians and win their devotion. Experience as a criminal lawyer had made him a dynamic and persuasive speaker. On stage or before television cameras, he revealed a kind of political charisma. By the strength of his personality and

his spellbinding oratory, he was able to stir many Canadians and win their support.

Lester Pearson

Lester Pearson became leader of the Liberal party when Louis St. Laurent retired in 1958. When Pearson was only 17, he interrupted his education to serve overseas in World War I. He enlisted in the army, but transferred to the Royal Flying Corps. An officer said to him, "Lester is not a very belligerent name for a man who wants to be a fighter pilot. We'll call you 'Mike.'" The name stuck.

After the war, "Mike" Pearson taught at the University of Toronto. In 1948, he joined the Department of External Affairs. Pearson enjoyed a successful diplomatic career, which included being Canada's ambassador to the United States. He was also active in the establishment of the United Nations. He was actually nominated as the first Secretary General of the UN, but the Soviet Union would not accept a Canadian in that post. The Soviets believed that a Canadian would tend to take the side of the United States. Pearson did serve as President of the UN General Assembly in 1952-1953.



Pearson gained international respect for helping create the UN Emergency Force in the Suez crisis of 1956. His friendly and modest manner and skilful powers of persuasion made him a major force in international affairs. For his contribution to world peace, he received the Nobel Prize for Peace in 1957.

Unlike Diefenbaker, Pearson was soft-spoken and never really seemed at home in the give-and-take of the Parliamentary debates. He was known in later life to

sneak out of Cabinet meetings to watch World Series baseball games on television in a nearby room.

Pearson became Canada's prime minister in 1963. During his term, the government pushed forward reforms in many fields. A medical insurance plan and a Canada pension plan were set up. The Company of Young Canadians was established to help Aboriginal people and the urban and rural poor. Even after his retirement in 1968, honours continued to come Pearson's way.

- 1. Lester Pearson held at least six major jobs in his lifetime: wartime pilot, university professor, ambassador, politician, secretary of state for external affairs, and prime minister. What skills do you think Pearson must have had for these jobs?
- 2. What skills and characteristics did John Diefenbaker have that qualified him as prime minister?
- 3. Compare the leadership qualities of the two prime ministers. How were they similar and different?



For generations, labour unions had been seeking protection from unemployment. This put them in the forefront of the battle for unemployment insurance and old age pensions. In the post-war years, unions also made some gains in their struggle for rights and recognition.

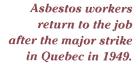
A key breakthrough came in 1944 with Privy Council Order 1003. This act, passed during the war, gave workers the right to choose a union, bargain collectively, present grievances, and curb unfair industrial practices. A number of strikes in the late 1940s and 1950s brought other changes.

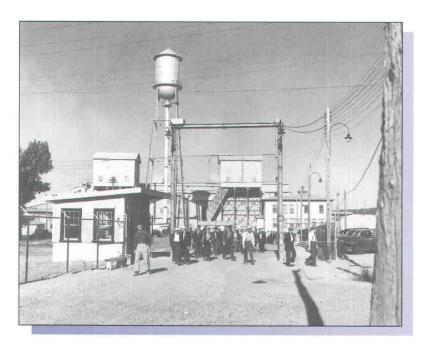
1945: 17 000 Ford workers strike

Result: the Rand Formula, by which workers who made union wages and enjoyed union benefits were obligated to pay dues.

1946: Stelco strike in Hamilton; woodworkers' strike in British Columbia 1947: Fishers strike in Nova Scotia







Result: Corporations were encouraged to compromise with unions, especially since their markets were dramatically improving. Wage scales in unionized and non-unionized firms rose as the Canadian economy grew.

Throughout the 1950s, there were a number of strikes across the country for higher wages and improved working conditions. Some of the largest included the 1949 asbestos miners' strike in Quebec, the National Rail Strike in 1950, the Ford Motors and General Motors strikes in 1955, and the Newfoundland loggers' strike in 1958.

In 1956, Canada's two major umbrella organizations, the Trade and Labour Congress (TLC) and the Canadian Congress of Labour (CCL), merged to become today's Canadian Labour Congress (CLC). In 1961, the Congress worked closely with the CCF to help form a new political party, the New Democratic Party (NDP). Workers, farmers, and some intellectuals felt that the Liberal and Conservative parties tended to reflect the interests of "Big Business." The New Democratic Party stood for full employment, free education, Canadian control of the economy, and public ownership of important natural resources. The NDP was especially involved in developing policy on universal free medical care and other expanded social support programs.

Many of the Canadian Labour Congress unions, with a membership of about 200 000, supported the NDP. This political achievement was a turning point for the Canadian labour movement. It gained a stronger political voice and became more independent than ever from its American counterpart.

Membership in unions passed the 1 million mark in 1949 (30 per cent of the labour force). Growth was slower over the next 15 years. But in 1965, union mem-

bership rose dramatically when government employees became unionized. Many women were at the forefront of this upsurge in union membership, because their wages and working conditions were worse than those of their male co-workers. Two postal strikes, in 1965 and 1968, involved tens of thousands of workers.

Other public sector workers, including teachers, hospital workers, and civil servants, wanted the same improvements in wages and working conditions granted union members in the private (non-government) sector. By the end of the 1960s, some of these public sector unions were the largest in Canada and among the most militant. The government fought back against strike actions with back-to-work legislation and compulsory arbitration (a hearing that imposes a settlement).

By 1969, about 8 million person-days had been lost in work stoppages. Most of these strikes were over wage increases as inflation (rising prices) gripped the country. In these work stoppages, the big unions asked for and were granted very large wage increases, anywhere from 20 to 30 per cent over two years. These wage increases, however, added fuel to the problem of rising prices.

Human and Civil Rights

Before 1960, some small steps had been taken to legislate certain human rights throughout Canada. Ontario, for example, had passed a Racial Discrimination Act in 1944. It prohibited the publication or broadcast of anything that discriminated on the basis of race. Ontario also passed a Fair Employment Practices Act (1951) and a Fair Accommodation Practices Act (1954). Saskatchewan was the first province to pass a wide-ranging Bill of Rights in 1947. Many of these acts were in

response to pressure put on provincial governments by ethnocultural and racial groups that had experienced discrimination.

The Canadian Bill of Rights

One of the accomplishments that Prime Minister Diefenbaker was most proud of was the **Canadian Bill of Rights**. Most countries have a constitution that guarantees the rights of its citizens. In Canada, these rights had been upheld by custom and tradition rather than by law. In 1960, an act of Parliament was passed guaranteeing Canadians the traditional freedoms for the first time by law. These were:

- Freedom of speech (right to state an opinion without being afraid of government or law).
- Freedom of assembly and association (right to hold meetings, parades, and join clubs).
- Freedom of religion (right to worship as you please).
- Freedom of the press (right to publish opinions without fear of the government or law).
- Right of the individual to equality before the law (right to a fair trial, legal counsel, and protection against unfair imprisonment).

The Ontario Human Rights Code

The appearance of the federal Bill of Rights spawned other codes of rights elsewhere in the country. One was the **Ontario Human Rights Code** of 1962. It was enforced by the **Ontario Human Rights Commission (OHRC)** founded in 1961. The mission of the Ontario Human Rights Commission was commitment "... to the elimination of discrimination in society by providing the people of Ontario with strong leadership and quality service... to be accomplished by effec-



Netsurfer

To read the mission statement of the Ontario Human Rights Commission, visit its web site at www.ohrc.on.ca/mission.htm.

Non-Governmental Rights Groups

Non-governmental groups have also been active in safeguarding the rights of Canadians.

Canadian Civil Liberties Association (CCLA)

founded in 1964 in response to the Ontario government's proposal to increase police powers; the proposal was withdrawn after protest

acts as a watchdog group to guard against threats to democratic rights

activities include resisting film censorship, forced religious teaching in schools, and protecting the rights of political groups

has a department that talks to students and teachers in schools, colleges, and universities

Elizabeth Fry Society (for women) and John Howard Society (for men)

voluntary organizations aimed at safeguarding the rights of prisoners and providing them with rehabilitation programs

motivated by the belief that all individuals have worth and have potential to be responsible citizens; both organizations declare that people convicted of crimes should be treated with compassion, dignity, and equity

lobby for changes to the criminal justice system to achieve this goal

care for men and women both during their imprisonment and upon their release by providing counselling, emotional support, and training in life and employment skills



Netsurfer

Read about the mission of the Elizabeth Fry Society of Canada at http://home.ican.net/~edtoth/FRYTEMP/eprinciples.html and the John Howard Society at http://www.johnhoward.ca

tive enforcement of the code, and the promotion and advancement of human rights."

The OHRC provided a body that could investigate and pass judgement on cases of human rights abuse. It also helped to educate people about their rights. The first director was Dr. Daniel G. Hill, a Black Canadian and distinguished human rights activist. The Ontario Human Rights Code of 1962 became the model for similar codes in all other provinces.

Aboriginal Political Movements

After World War II, the plight of Aboriginal nations also came to the forefront. People around the world were becoming more concerned about human and civil rights. The social injustices Aboriginal nations in Canada faced could no longer be ignored. Television, radio, and press reports widely

publicized issues such as land claims. During the 1950s and 1960s, more Canadians had moved into northern areas where Aboriginal nations were the majority. The goal was to develop northern resources. Aboriginal nations objected to mining, hydroelectric, and pipeline projects on their lands. They made their voices heard.

The experiences of Aboriginal war veterans also sparked movements for change. Serving in the Canadian forces overseas during the war, these soldiers lived with a "freedom" they had never known in Canada. At home after the war, they found they were once again treated as inferior by society and the political system. If they had volunteered for military service, did they not deserve better treatment?

The first step toward change was revising the Indian Act. Leaders of Aboriginal nations demanded that the Act be reviewed, and in 1951, they won their case. With the changes to the Indian Act,

Aboriginal bands gained more authority, Aboriginal women won the right to vote in band elections, and the bans on the Potlatch and Sun Dance were lifted. Band members no longer needed special permits to sell produce, and the veto right of the Indian Affairs minister over band decisions was reduced.

In 1950, the Inuit received the right to vote in federal elections. Other Aboriginal nations, however, were still denied this right. There was a concern among some Aboriginal nations that, while the vote would give them political equality with other Canadians, it might also be another way to assimilate them. When the government stated that receiving the vote would not result in changes to official status, opposition disappeared. In 1960, registered Indians gained the right to vote in Canada.

By the end of the 1960s, residential schools were phased out. Some bands created their own police forces and ran their own welfare services and public works. At Expo 67, the Aboriginal nations of Canada had their own pavilion. At the entrance a message read, "The Indian people's destiny will be determined by them, and our country, Canada, will be better for it." The pavilion was full of anti-assimilation messages such as, "Give us the right to manage our own affairs." An international audience witnessed this strong and proud statement of independence on the part of Aboriginal political organizations.

In 1969, the government published a White Paper (policy paper) on Indian affairs. It recommended gradually eliminating the special status of "Indians" set out in the Indian Act. Prime Minister Trudeau proposed that peoples of Aboriginal nations should move toward "full social, economic, and political participation in Canadian life."

Many Aboriginal leaders, including Harold Cardinal, Howard Adams, and



Kahn-Tinehta Horn, strongly opposed this policy. They believed it would result in the loss of their cultures and heritage by absorbing them into mainstream Canadian society. They argued that they should be treated as independent nations. As nations, they had negotiated special protection of their lands and special rights through treaties. These leaders also believed in their Aboriginal right (rights as the first inhabitants) to lands not covered by treaties.

Some court decisions came down in their favour. A 1965 ruling in Saskatchewan said that all registered Indians had the right to medical insurance from the government even if they lived off reserves. Treaty No. 6, signed in the 1870s, had stated, "a medicine chest will be kept at the house of each Indian agent." This was taken to mean that the government had made a commitment to look after the health of the Aboriginal people whose ancestors had signed the treaty. The decision implied that treaties must be honoured by the government even within modern times and in modern terms. The federal government changed its policy

After the right to vote was extended to Aboriginal peoples, the first votes were cast by members of the Rice Lake Band near Peterborough, Ontario.



Netsurfer
For two different sides to
Aboriginal issues, visit the
Assembly of First Nations at
http://www.afn.ca and the
Department of Indian and
Northern affairs at
http://www.inac.gc.ca.

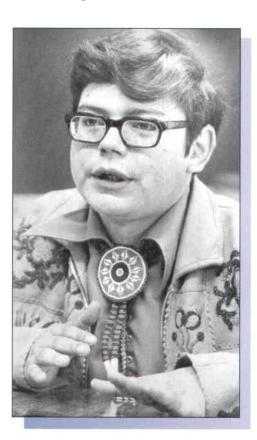
and established a forum to handle Aboriginal land claims, but many questions over rights and claims had still to be resolved.

Education was another key issue. When residential schools were phased out, Aboriginal children were integrated into regular provincial schools. But these schools did not address the cultural needs of students from Aboriginal nations. Many bands called for community control of schools for their children. This was granted in 1970 in Alberta. By 1973, the federal government endorsed schools run by Aboriginal nations.

Relocation

In the 1950s and 1960s, as suburbs sprawled around cities and resources were being developed in more remote areas, the government decided to relocate some Aboriginal communities from their

Harold Cardinal, a member of the Sucker Creek band in Alberta, was an influential Aboriginal leader and author. He wrote a scathing attack of Trudeau's policies, demonstrating that they excluded Aboriginal nations from a just society.



traditional lands. From the government's point of view, the relocations were meant to provide the communities with better housing and job opportunities. In fact, the relocations freed land for development and made administration of Aboriginal populations easier. Promises for better housing and economic opportunities were not always fulfilled.

In one case, Inuit from Quebec were relocated to the High Arctic in 1953. They were promised that the land would be as good as, or better than, the land they lived on in Quebec. Furthermore, if they did not like the life in their new home, they could go back to Quebec in two years. When the Inuit arrived in the Arctic, they found a desolate and uninhabited area. Families had been split up in the move. When some Inuit requested a return to Quebec, their application was refused.

Later, in the 1970s and 1980s, some paid their own way back. Many believed the government wanted to protect the Arctic from international claims and assert Canadian sovereignty in the area. The government needed to prove people were living in the area to establish sovereignty. The government claimed the people went willingly, but in 1988 agreed to pay the costs of those wanting to return to their original homes.

New Political Organizations

Before World War II, some attempts had been made by leaders of Aboriginal nations to form political organizations. But these organizations had been stifled by government bans and restrictions, and so most disbanded. The diversity of Aboriginal nations also made unity difficult. The concerns of the different nations, and of treaty and non-treaty Indians, are often different. Progress was made when the National Indian Council was formed in 1961. Eventually, it split into the **National**

Indian Brotherhood (representing status and treaty groups) and the **Native Council of Canada** (representing Non-Status Indians and Métis). Both were heavily involved in the 1969 White Paper debate.



With all the movements for change in the 1960s, questions about the values society should have had never been more in the forefront. Most of these questions were raised by young people. The slogan was "trust no one over 30." Protests arose over rights for Aboriginal nations and Black North Americans. Young people also demonstrated against nuclear armament, American interference in Canadian affairs, and the Vietnam war.

Black Canadians, especially those in Nova Scotia, had been active in human and civil rights struggles long before the 1960s. Groups had succeeded in helping to get anti-racist legislation passed in the 1940s. In the 1950s, organizations such as the Negro Citizenship Association and the Canadian Association for the Advancement of Coloured People lobbied successfully for improved civil rights.



The movement was energized in the 1960s when Martin Luther King, Jr. and Malcolm X became public figures in the United States. In King's acceptance speech for the Nobel Prize for Peace in 1964, he referred to the "22 million Negroes of the United States...engaged in a creative battle to end the long night of racial injustice." The US civil rights struggle was characterized by peaceful protests and the more radical voices of the Black Nationalist Movement (under the Nation of Islam), the Black Power Movement, and the Black Panther Party.

The struggle for Black civil rights in the US was actively supported by many Canadians.



Canadians also held anti-war demonstrations demanding that the United States remove its military forces from Vietnam. Although the Black Panthers did spread into Canada, and helped form the Black United Front in 1969, radical Black nationalism never became a strong political movement in Canada. This was partly due to the civil rights gains of the 1950s. It was also due to the strategy many Black Canadian leaders followed of working together with other ethnocultural and racial groups for change.

The Women's Movement

Many Canadian women in the 1960s were deeply involved in working for social change. The **Women's Liberation Movement** burst onto the scene in the 1960s. Women protested and marched for changes in employment practices, life choices, and politics.

After World War II, many women who had been working in factories and other industries were laid off from their jobs. If they were in "replacement positions," they were expected to give up their jobs to men returning from the war. Nurseries that allowed women with children to work during the war were closed. Women were expected to go back to their traditional

Thérèse Casgrain worked to win the right to vote for women in Quebec, protested against muclear testing, was active in human rights organizations, and served as leader of the CCF in Quebec.



roles as stay-at-home mothers and wives.

In reality, many women took jobs outside the home in addition to their household work. They needed the extra income to help pay bills. Many immigrant women had to work to make a living. With the economic boom, industries also needed more workers. Women's participation in the workforce rose from 18 per cent in 1921 to 39 per cent by 1971.

But many jobs held by women were lower paying and had less prestige than jobs held by men. Ninety-five per cent of all secretaries were female, but fewer than 7 per cent of doctors were women. By 1970, less than 4 per cent of women had management jobs. Women still met with discrimination when they tried to move into jobs previously done by men.

Women in the 1960s also had little voice in politics. There were only a handful of women Members of Parliament and just a scattering of women in local and provincial governments. Women's Liberationists wanted to be treated equally in the arena of politics just as in other fields. They also wanted more options in their lifestyles. Some women wanted the chance to combine career and family, while others wanted to devote their lives to their careers and advance professionally at the same rate as men.

There were two groups in the women's movement: the mainstream and the radical. The mainstream believed that change could be achieved by changes to laws and by publicizing their cause through the media. The radical feminists focused on the fact that men would not give up their power willingly, and therefore stronger actions had to be taken. They protested for radical changes in education, the division of labour in the home and workplace, and clothing styles. This more aggressive attempt to remove sexual stereotyping made some people view these women as "man-hating"

Highlights of the Women's Movement in the 1950s and 1960s

1940 women gain the right to vote in Quebec, the last province to grant women the franchise

1951 Female Employee Fair Remuneration Act (equal pay legislation) is passed in Ontario; other provinces pass similar legislation

Thérèse Casgrain becomes provincial leader of the CCF party in Quebec

Canadian Negro Women's Association is founded to represent the rights and concerns of Black women

1956 Federal government passes pay equity legislation for female government workers

1960 Voice of Women is formed to protest against nuclear armament and atomic weapons in Canada

1966 Mary Two-Axe Earley, a Mohawk from the Kahnawake Reserve in Quebec, helps found the Equal Rights for Indian Women organization. Aboriginal women who married a non-Aboriginal man lost their Indian status, their right to vote in band matters, and their right to live on their reserve. The complaint eventually went to the Human Rights Committee of the United Nations, which ruled that the Indian Act in this instance violated the human rights of Aboriginal women. The Indian Act was changed in 1985.

1967 The Canadian government establishes a Royal Commission on the Status of Women, headed by Florence Bird, a journalist and broadcaster. The Commission's purpose is "to ensure for women equal opportunities with men in all aspects of Canadian society."

Black, Asian, and immigrant women find that their concerns are not represented by the mainstream women's movement and form their own groups including the Canadian Negro Women's Association (later the Canadian Congress of Black Women), India Mahila Association, and the Korean-Canadian Women's Association.

women's libbers who wanted to overturn traditional values of home and family.

Women made some gains in the 1950s and 1960s. But as the Report of the Royal Commission on the Status of Women would show, there were many areas in which they still faced inequality (see Chapter 15).





🔞 颚 Trudeaumania

As baby boomers became more powerful in the 1960s, they became tired of the same old faces in politics. They wanted someone new. It was in this atmosphere of change and rebellion that Pierre Trudeau, in 1968, became both leader of the Liberal party and Prime Minister. To many Canadians, Trudeau seemed to be the man of the hour. For one thing, he was a Frenchspeaking Quebecker. Many felt he would be able to address Quebec's concerns. He was also youthful, casual, and stylish. He drove fast sports cars and had been photographed doing jack-knife dives into swimming pools and riding a camel.

As minister of justice, Trudeau had convinced people he was cool under pressure, logical, and scholarly. Even more appealing were his wit and confidence, which came through loud and clear in television appearances. Wherever Trudeau appeared to give a speech, it was like a rock concert. Young Liberals screamed themselves hoarse and the crowds swarmed around their hero.

Trudeau adopted a new campaign style. He arrived in many cities by jet, and would often descend into a suburban shopping centre parking lot by helicopter. He mingled with the crowds, shaking

Trudeau attracted large crowds and gained tremendous popular support in the 1960s. It was Trudeaumania.



hands and accepting kisses from admirers. Trudeau talked to the crowds about building a "just society," in which all Canadians were respected and shared in the country's prosperity. Hecklers were put down easily with quick-witted replies. He ended his speeches by challenging Canadians to take a chance on the future and vote for the Liberals. Smiling for the cameras, he then tossed the flower from his buttonhole to the crowd. He stepped back into the helicopter and was whisked away to his next rally. The crowds loved him. The press called it **Trudeaumania**.

Next to Trudeau, Robert Stanfield, leader of the Conservative party, appeared steady but dull. He was particularly uneasy in front of news cameras. He once complained, "You walk out [of the House of Commons] and they shove a bunch of microphones in your face, and in 30 seconds you are expected to produce a profound and intelligent answer to an

extremely complicated national issue." Stanfield's answers were thoughtful and honest, but his slow manner of speaking made him seem indecisive and weak.

On the eve of the election, 24 June 1968, the St. Jean Baptiste parade was held in Montreal. Trudeau stood on the platform with the event's special guests. In the crowd were some radical separatists determined to demonstrate against Canadian federalism. The parade turned into a riot. Demonstrators began throwing rocks and bottles. Most of the guests on the platform dashed inside for safety, but Trudeau remained on the platform. The people of Canada, watching on television, saw their prime minister standing firm against the radical separatists.

Headlines the next day said, "Trudeau defies separatists." Citizens read the headlines as they went to the polls to vote. Trudeau won a resounding majority in the election.

Activities

Understand Facts and Concepts

1. Add these new terms to your Factfile.

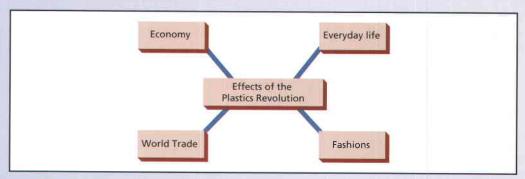
baby boom suburbs global village regional disparity equalization payments infrastructure St. Lawrence Seaway trans-Canada pipeline welfare state universal plan Canadian Labour Congress (CLC)
New Democratic Party (NDP)
Canadian Bill of Rights
Ontario Human Rights Code
Ontario Human Rights Commission
(OHRC)
National Indian Brotherhood
Native Council of Canada
Women's Liberation Movement
Trudeaumania

- 2. a) The Canada of the 1950s and 1960s was no longer mainly rural—it was urban and suburban. What were the causes of this change?
 - b) How did this change affect the lives of Canadians?
- 3. Human rights have featured prominently in Western nations since the UN's signing of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. What have individual Canadians, Canadian an governments, and private organizations done to protect individual Canadian rights?
- 4. a) The post-war years have often been described as an era of prosperity. Provide examples that demonstrate this prosperity.
 - b) Provide evidence that not everyone shared in the prosperity.
- 5. How was the St. Lawrence Seaway an example of the close ties between the American and Canadian economies?

Think and Communicate

- 6. Create a map entitled "Canadian Economic Development in the 1950s and 1960s." Start with an outline map of Canada, label the provinces and major cities, and devise symbols to represent the major types of development (mining, for example). Place the symbols on the appropriate areas on the map.
 - a) Based on your map, describe the different characteristics of the economies in Canada's main regions.
 - b) What are the main reasons for the differences? What effects do they have?
 - c) What measures did the government introduce to deal with regional disparities? How effective were these measures?

7. Using a web diagram like the one below, outline the effect the plastics revolution had on life in the 1950s and 1960s.



- 8. a) Rank the human rights listed below (from the Canadian Bill of Rights, Part 1, Section 1) in order of importance to you.
 - right to life, liberty and security of person
 - right to equality before the law
 - freedom of religion
 - · freedom of speech
 - · freedom of assembly
 - · freedom of the press
 - b) Imagine the top three rights you have listed were taken away. How would this affect your everyday life?
- 9. a) Work in groups. Using a chart, outline the pros and cons of universal health care. Present your findings to the class.
 - b) Hold a class survey on the question of whether or not Canada should continue to have universal health care. Discuss the results.
- 10. The federal government's White Paper on Aboriginal Policy of 1969 wanted Aboriginal peoples to become part of mainstream Canadian society. Leaders of Aboriginal nations were suspicious of the government's motive. Take on the role of a leader of an Aboriginal nation and explain why you were not in favour of the 1969 policy.

Apply Your Knowledge

- 11. In the 1960s, the community of Africville in Halifax, Nova Scotia, was demolished and all its residents were relocated. One writer, Donald Clairmont, wrote in a book called *The Spirit of Africville* in 1992 that the community should never be forgotten. Research the history of this community and why it was destroyed in the 1960s. Present your findings in a short report.
- 12. A number of prominent Black Canadians made important contributions in fields such as politics, education, the arts, and business during the 1950s and 1960s. Choose one of these individuals and prepare a profile. Include an assessment of the person's contributions. You may add others to this list.

Leonard Braithwaite Daniel Hill Howard McCurdy Pearleen and William Oliver Kay Livingstone Oscar Peterson Portia White

- 13. Design a bill of rights for your school. You can use the basic rights outlined in the Canadian Bill of Rights (Activity 8) as a model. Design rights specific to your school's situation and the needs of your student body.
- 14. "Campaign styles are more important than campaign issues." Discuss this statement with respect to Trudeaumania in 1968. Is this statement true of political leaders today? Explain.
- 15. In the book *Boom, Bust and Echo*, David Foot and Daniel Stoffman claimed that 1937 was one of the best years in the century to be born. One of the reasons was that relatively few people were born in that year, so people born in 1937 had little peer competition for jobs, etc., to deal with throughout their lives. On the other hand, 1961 was one of the worst years to be born. What unique challenges did people born in 1961 face?

Get to the Source

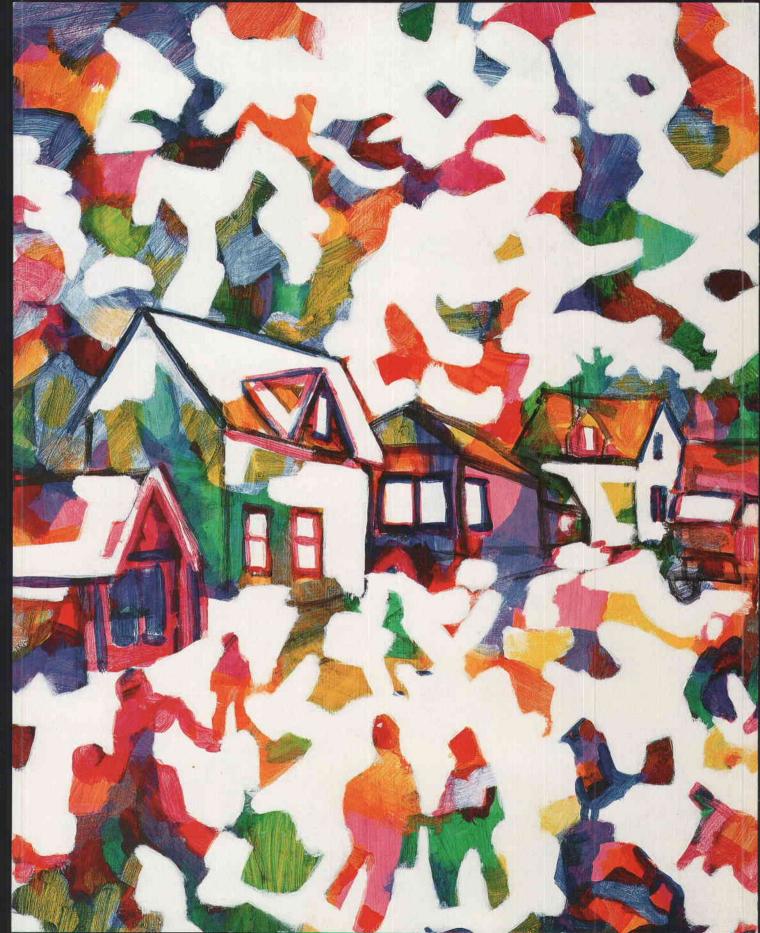
16. Henry Bishop, Curator of the Black Cultural Centre in Dartmouth, Nova Scotia, wrote about what it means to him to be Canadian.

Born and growing up as the youngest of 14 siblings in Weymouth Falls, Digby County, Nova Scotia, I began developing a keen interest in becoming an artist, cultural worker, and visionary at an early age.

Realizing the significance of African heritage, it became my passport and foundation to security in future as a Canadian citizen. The contribution and meaningful achievements would be my salvation. I knew by comparison that everyone needs equal opportunity to succeed. My determination would not be destroyed by racism. Pride in my heritage would be an example to all Canadians. I would be an ordinary person doing extraordinary deeds that would reflect the purpose of a positive approach to life in the land where my [ancestors] settled and died.

We, as Canadians, live in one of the greatest countries in the world. We must strive to understand the cross-cultural composition around us, learn to appreciate the mosaic of Canada from sea to sea, and from east to west. Let us join in the spirit of respect and dignity for all thus creating a proud identity as we stand on guard for these principles. Source: Quoted in Sauvé and Sauvé, Gateway to Canada (Toronto: Oxford University Press, 1997), pp. 88-89.

- a) What were Henry Bishop's personal goals?
- b) What key elements does he feel are the foundations of his Canadian identity?
- c) What positive developments in the 1950s and 1960s contributed to the spirit of respect and dignity Henry Bishop talks about? What problems still existed?





YEARS OF CHANGE

1970-1982

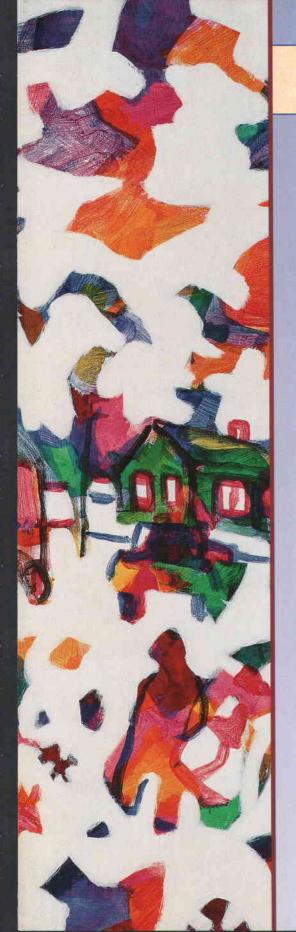
he twelve years between 1970 and 1982 were turbulent ones for Canada, especially in French-English relations. The period began with the October Crisis in Quebec. One government official was kidnapped and another was murdered during this crisis. The events deeply shocked Canadians and illustrated the serious rift between Quebec and the rest of the country.

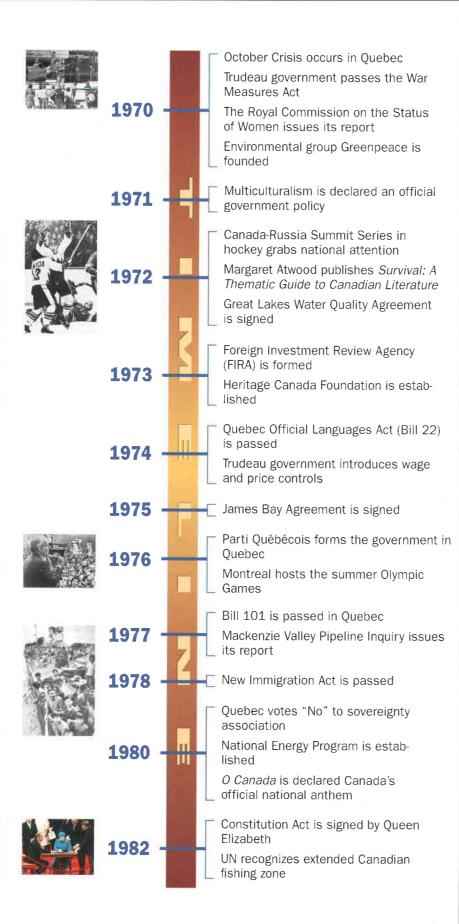
The period ended with the patriation (bringing home) of Canada's constitution from Britain. Prime Minister Trudeau had promised to reform the constitution to answer the complaints of Quebec. Instead, the rift between Quebec and the rest of Canada only seemed to get wider.

At the same time, Canada was becoming a more racially and ethnoculturally diverse country. Trudeau's government adopted multiculturalism as an official policy in 1971. In 1978, the Immigration Act was revised. Many more people from developing countries came to Canada.

Canada's economy remained closely tied to that of the US, but a growing sense of nationalism prompted the Trudeau government to pass laws that gave Canadians greater control over their economic affairs. Women and Aboriginal nations continued to fight for greater equality in society, and the environmental movement came to the forefront. In technology, advances in computers, telecommunications, and nuclear energy changed Canadian society and the world.

- 1. This painting by Janet Mitchell is entitled *A Day in the Street* (1978). What aspects of everyday life can you identify in this painting?
- 2. Describe the forms and colours the artist uses. Why do you think she chose these techniques?
- 3. What impressions of everyday life in 1970s Canada does this painting present?





Strands & Topics

Communities: Local, National, and Global



Canadian Identity

- · multiculturalism becomes an official government policy
- · many more immigrants from the Asia Pacific and Caribbean regions add to Canada's growing ethnocultural and racial diversity
- O Canada is declared the official national anthem in 1980
- Constitution is brought home from Britain in 1982
- Canadian Radio-Television and Telecommunications Commission and Heritage Canada Foundation promote Canadian culture



External Forces Shaping Canada's Policies

- debate over American influence on Canadian culture and economy continues
- · OPEC's oil embargo leads to a national energy crisis



French-English Relations

- · War Measures Act is invoked to deal with the October Crisis in 1970
- separatist Parti Québécois forms government in Quebec, 1976
- · Quebec language bills promote use of French in the province
- · Quebeckers vote "No" to sovereignty association in 1980 referendum



War, Peace, and Security

- Canada follows a policy of nuclear disarmament
- Trudeau government reassesses Canada's role in NATO and NORAD
- · Canada continues its role in international peacekeeping

Change and Continuity



Population Patterns

- · immigration levels rise
- baby boom generation enters the workforce



Impact of Science and Technology

- · Canadarm is developed
- · Telesat Canada is established to set up a nation-wide satellite telecommunications network
- · computers come into more widespread use
- nuclear power is developed for peaceful purposes



Canada's International **Status and Foreign Policy**

- · Canada expands its foreign aid
- · Canada continues its role in the United Nations and peacekeeping
- Trudeau government establishes relations with People's Republic of China
- Canada joins La Francophonie
- Foreign Investment Review Agency (FIRA) is established

Citizenship and Heritage



Social and Political Movements

- Royal Commission on the Status of Women makes its report
- · Aboriginal nations gain a stronger voice, particularly on land claims
- · environmental issues come to the forefront; Greenpeace is founded



Contributions of Individuals

• Pierre Trudeau and René Lévesque are prominent political leaders

- Mel Hurtig leads economic nationalists
- Laura Sabia and Florence Bird are at the forefront of women's activism
- Canadian writers such as Margaret Atwood and Alice Munro gain recognition
- · Terry Fox, Lincoln Alexander, and Matthew Coon Come are other prominent individuals

Social, Economic, and **Political Structures**



The Economy

- · economic nationalism arises
- National Energy Program is introduced
- wage and price controls are instituted
- · regional disparities continue



The Changing Role of Government

- · War Measures Act is invoked during October Crisis in 1970
- Constitution Act and Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms are passed in 1982
- government takes further steps to protect Canadian culture and economy from external influences

Methods of Historical Inquiry



Skill Development

- · formulating a thesis
- preparing a research essay
- · making predictions based on evidence

Activities

pp. 393–395, 414–416, 432–433

Expectations

At the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- · analyze developments in French-English relations
- explain how changes in government policy such as multiculturalism contributed to the development of Canadian identity
- · evaluate changes in Canada's immigration policy and their effects
- · describe the impact of the baby boom on Canadian society
- evaluate Canada's changing relations with the US
- · assess changes in the Canadian economy
- describe the contributions of various individuals to Canadian culture and society
- · evaluate developments in the women's movement
- analyze developments in the movement by Aboriginal nations for recognition of their rights
- describe Canada's changing role in world affairs and the global economy
- analyze the impact of technological developments in nuclear power, space research, computers, and telecommunications
- · formulate an effective thesis statement
- write a research essay
- · make predictions based on evidence



Canada's Changing Identity

*

The October Crisis

5 October 1970, 8:15
a.m. – The doorbell rings in the home of the senior British trade commissioner in Montreal, James R. Cross. Two men carrying a gift-wrapped package tell the person who opens the door that they want to deliver it to Mr. Cross. Inside the house, they pull a rifle from the package and seize James Cross.

11:30 a.m. – A radio station receives ransom

demands from the kidnappers. They identify themselves as members of the FLQ and demand the release of 23 political prisoners being held for bombings and terrorist activities. They also demand transportation to Cuba or Algeria, \$500 000 in gold bars, and publication of the FLQ Manifesto (statement of beliefs). The government has 48 hours to comply or Cross will be killed.

8 October – The government refuses the demands of the kidnappers, but the FLQ Manifesto is read on the radio and television net-



Soldiers stood on the streets of Montreal during the October Crisis in 1970.

works of Radio Canada. It calls the people of Quebec to revolution and ends with the words "Long live free Quebec!" 10 October - Quebec Labour Minister Pierre Laporte is in his front yard tossing a football with his nephew. Suddenly, a blue Chevrolet stops. Four men with machine guns shove Laporte into the back seat and speed away. The No. 2 man in the Quebec

government has been kidnapped. The Quebec government now begins to take this crisis very seriously. Premier Bourassa takes refuge in the Queen Elizabeth Hotel surrounded by armed guards. Laporte's kidnappers identify themselves as a second cell of the FLQ.

12 October – In Ottawa, federal troops take up positions around government buildings and provide escorts for important politicians.

16 October, 4:00 a.m. – On the advice of the Quebec government, Prime Minister

Trudeau proclaims the War Measures Act. It is the first time the act has ever been used in peacetime. The **War Measures Act** takes away the civil rights of all Canadians. It makes membership in the FLQ a criminal offence and bans political rallies. The police anywhere in Canada can hold people without charge for up to 21 days and without trial for up to 90 days. Police and military can arrest people just on the suspicion of belonging to the FLQ.

Trudeau argues that the act is justified because the kidnappings are the beginning of a conspiracy to overthrow the government. Asked by a reporter how far the government will go, Trudeau replies, "Just watch me."

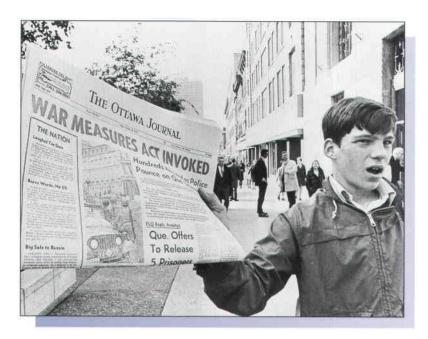
In pre-dawn raids the police round up, among others, 50 members of the Parti Québécois. A total of 465 people are eventually arrested.

- **18 October** In the early hours, the body of Pierre Laporte is found in the trunk of the car used to kidnap him. He had been choked to death with the religious chain he wore around his neck. Amazingly, the car is parked near the armed forces base at St. Hubert.
- 4 **December** Police surround a house in suburban Montreal where James Cross has been held for 59 days. After hours of bargaining, the armed kidnappers and their lawyer drive to the Expo 67 site. The kidnappers surrender Cross, and in exchange, are flown to Cuba.
- **28 December** Three FLQ members accused of assassinating Laporte crawl out of a tunnel hidden under a farmhouse south of Montreal. They surrender to the police and are charged with murder. The FLQ crisis is over.
- 1. Do you think Prime Minister Trudeau was justified in invoking the War Measures Act? Why or why not?
- 2. Do you think the federal government would send in the army today if Quebec were to separate? Explain.

Quebec and Canada

The relationship between Canada and Quebec reached a crisis in the 1970s and led to new questions about the country's unity and identity. Many Canadians were shocked by the October Crisis. Kidnapping and murder of prominent government officials was something that happened in other countries, not Canada. The crisis woke up many Canadians to the seriousness of the independence movement in Ouebec.

In Quebec, many people supported the steps Ottawa had taken in the heat of the crisis. The FLQ terrorists were a very small group in the province. But the idea that Canadian soldiers had to move in to keep peace in the province was disturbing. And while most people did not support the FLQ's violent tactics, they agreed with its belief that an English-speaking minority held all the positions of power and influence in the province. The end of the FLQ crisis did not end the differences or the turmoil between French and English Canadians.



The passage of the War Measures Act in 1970 was the first time the act was ever invoked in peacetime.
Why did it cause controversy?

In time, the feeling grew that Ottawa had overreacted. Too many questions remained unanswered. Was there really a conspiracy to take over the Quebec government? If the trouble was in Ouebec. why did the government take away the civil rights of every Canadian? Didn't the police already have the authority to deal with criminal activities? Was the federal government trying to put down the legal separatist movement in Quebec, not just the radical FLQ? These questions have never been fully answered. Bitterness still lingers among hundreds of people who were arrested during the crisis for nothing more than their nationalistic beliefs.

13

The Language Crisis

Quebec was facing another crisis in the 1970s. Before World War II, the birth rate among French Canadians had been the highest in Canada. By 1970, it was the lowest in Canada. At the same time, an increasing number of immigrants who spoke neither French nor English were coming to Quebec. Most of these immi-

grants settled in the Montreal area and preferred to educate their children in English. Many immigrants believed that if their children spoke English, they could move anywhere in North America to find work and feel at home.

The Quebec Liberal government became increasingly concerned about the survival of French-Canadian culture in Quebec. They believed protecting the French language was the most important way to keep French-Canadian culture alive. In 1974, the **Official Languages Act, Bill 22**, was introduced. It proclaimed French the official language of the civil service in Quebec.

Bill 22 limited immigrant parents' rights to choose the language in which their children would be educated. Only children who passed a test showing that they knew English could attend English schools. All others were required to go to French language schools.

The legislation was widely criticized by non French-speaking Quebeckers and recent immigrants. Many Canadians outside Quebec who were struggling to become bilingual also thought the legislation was unfair. Premier Bourassa argued that French-speaking Quebeckers were like a tiny island surrounded by an ocean

The Miracle of Survival

1976: 4.5 million French Canadians in Quebec

- 1 million English-speaking people in Quebec
- 1.5 million French-speaking people in the rest of Canada

The 6 million French-speaking Canadians represent about 3 per cent of the total English-speaking population of North America. The fact that a small French-speaking minority survived and flourished in North America has been called the "Miracle of Survival."

of English-speakers. Strong measures had to be taken if the French language and French-Canadian culture were to survive. But Quebec nationalist groups and some labour groups felt the bill did not go far enough. They wanted French to be the only official language in Quebec.

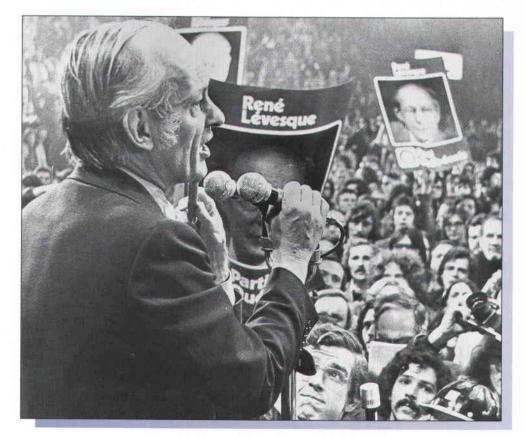
Parti Québécois Victory!

In November 1976, public opinion polls suggested that René Lévesque and the Parti Québécois could win the provincial election. Outside Quebec, few people wanted to believe that a separatist government could come to power. As the first election results began to pour in, it was clear that "the impossible" was happening.

A huge crowd gathered on the night of 15 November 1976 in the Paul Sauvé

arena in Montreal. Over and over they chanted the slogan "Quebec to the Quebeckers." When René Lévesque arrived, a frenzy of cheering broke out. It was a full five minutes before they allowed him to speak. The Parti Québécois had driven the Liberals from office, winning 71 of 110 seats. For the first time, Quebeckers had elected a government dedicated to establishing an independent Quebec. In an emotional speech, Lévesque put forward the challenge, "Now we have to build this country Quebec!"

The Parti Québécois victory sent shockwaves across Canada. For the first time since 1867, Canadian Confederation faced the genuine possibility that one of its largest provinces might separate. For many Quebeckers, however, 15 November 1976 announced the "hour of freedom." Others said, "Quebec is awake now ... We



Supporters gather around Parti Québécois leader René Lévesque. What was the PQ's platform for Quebec?





SPOTLIGHT ON ...

Gilles Vigneault

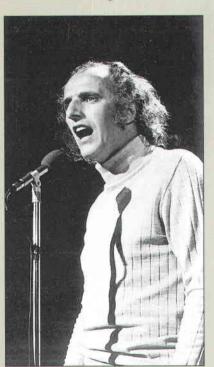
A rebirth in the arts accompanied the surge in nationalistic feelings in Quebec. This was especially true in music and poetry. The singer and poet Gilles Vigneault is the Quebec artist most often associated with the separatist movement. Over the course of his career, Vigneault has written more than 300 songs. His music helped to focus the Québécois drive to preserve their own language in their own country or pays. A song Vigneault first sang in a Montreal nightclub in 1964 had an electrifying effect on the public. Mon Pays quickly became the unofficial anthem of the Quebec separatist movement.

After a stage appearance in 1967, Vigneault was hailed by Montreal critic Louis

Dudek as "the most gifted poet to appear in Canada since Emile Nelligan, whether in English or French. He is the true thing, a genius, that comes

out of nowhere to delight the world."

Vigneault's "nowhere" was actually a small fishing village called Natashquan in the Saguenay district of Quebec. Growing up, he developed a love of the rugged Quebec landscape and the people who lived there. Surrounded by poverty, he began to question the social inequalities he met at every turn. Many of these inequalities seemed rooted in the political and economic systems that operated in Quebec at the time. Vigneault was convinced these systems favoured English speakers and repressed French speakers. In an interview in the Montreal Gazette in 1982, he talked about his



childhood and the way his political conscience developed.

Being an inspector meant that my father got \$300 more a vear. He had to fish to survive. And I knew for how much my father could sell his fish-a cent and a quarter each—and I knew how much a pound of canned fish cost-40 cents.

I started trying to find out where the 38 other cents were going. And I found out my father was being robbed and I decided to try and correct that. Then I became socially conscious of my environment and how much was wrong. It was very tough and very insulting.

One summer I worked as a waiter on the big steamships

which were on the Saguenay. And I lost the job because I did not know English enough, and then I discovered that a young man got the job because he spoke only English. That too helped my social conscience . . . a lot.

Vigneault took an active role in the Quebec referendums of 1980 and 1995. Bitterly disappointed over the failure of the 1980 referendum, he disappeared from public view for two years, then made a triumphant return to the stage with a series of Montreal concerts in 1982. He has always argued that it is impossible to separate art from politics. "If anyone," he once said, "including an artist, pretends he has nothing to do with politics, that means he doesn't pay taxes and doesn't vote."

English-speaking Quebeckers and members of immigrant communities who were outraged by Bill 101 formed a group called **Alliance Quebec**. They tried to challenge the law in the courts. Other English-speaking Quebeckers responded by voting with their feet. In the last half of 1977, 50 000 people left the province. Many English-speaking companies also left Montreal, moving their head offices to cities such as Toronto and Calgary. Other English-speaking Quebeckers stayed and began learning French.

The Parti Québécois leaders explained that they were protecting their language and culture, just as the federal government was taking steps to protect Canada from being swamped by American culture. Those businesses that left the province were accused by the PQ of practising economic blackmail. Quebec's language laws would continue to spark controversy over the next decades.

The Referendum of 1980

The Parti Québécois stressed the importance of gaining independence for Quebec. But despite their election victory, polls throughout the 1970s showed that less than 20 per cent of Quebeckers favoured independence. They seemed to draw back from a clean break. Some feared they would be swamped economically, culturally, and politically if they had to share the continent with the United States and Canada. At the same time, 84 per cent said they wanted some kind of change.

Lévesque promised that his government would hold a referendum before making any move toward independence. He told the Canadian Jewish Congress, "Whatever is going to happen is going to happen as democratically as we have

What does sovereignty association mean?

Sovereignty means that Quebec would be politically independent. It would collect its own taxes and have its own citizenship and immigration laws to protect French culture. No law passed in Ottawa would be binding in Quebec.

Association means that Quebec would still have close economic ties with the rest of Canada. The two "countries" would have the same trade policy with the same tariffs (taxes on imports) and other trade rules. They could share the same money. Quebec was proposing a common market with Canada, along the lines of the common market in Europe.

Mandate to negotiate means that Quebeckers were just giving their government the power to work out a deal with the rest of Canada. The government promised that the people would get another chance to vote on any agreement.

acted in the last 10 years.... We will do our best to win the referendum. But, if we lose, it goes without saying that we will respect that decision."

By 1980, the Parti Québécois was ready to give Quebeckers a chance to vote on their future. Lévesque knew that only a minority wanted outright independence, so he proposed **sovereignty association**. Quebeckers were asked to vote "oui" or "non" to giving the Quebec government a "mandate to negotiate sovereignty association with Canada."

The referendum campaign was intense. Lévesque and the PQ wanted the vote to be a resounding "oui." A "oui" vote would be an enormous boost for the independence movement and a grave setback for Canadian national unity. The provincial

Mon Pays

by Gilles Vigneault

Mon pays ce n'est pas un pays
c'est l'hiver.

Mon jardin ce n'est pas un jardin
c'est la plaine.

Mon chemin ce n'est pas un chemin
c'est la neige.

Mon pays ce n'est pas un pays
c'est l'hiver.

This my land I call home
is a blanket of snow.
This my garden is barren
where nothing will grow.
This my road that I
travel has no place to go.
It's a homeland called Winter—
a country of snow.

- Do you think artists should use their art to support political causes? Give reasons for your position. Refer to other artists who have spoken out (or have refused to speak out) for other political causes in Canada.
- 2. Reread the lyrics to *Mon Pays*. Why do you think this song has been embraced by Quebec separtists as their "unofficial national anthem"?

have stood up and we shall not sit down again." The triumphant slogan "Frogs have teeth" was chalked on walls all over Montreal.

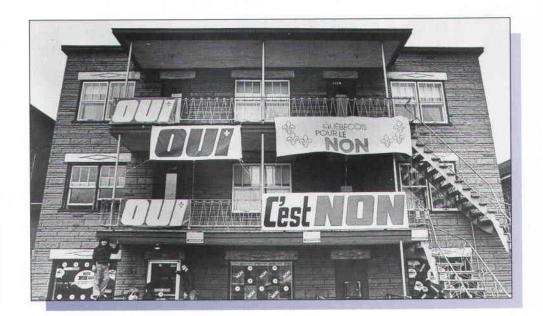
Bill 101

One of the first steps the Parti Québécois took was to pass the controversial language bill, known as **Bill 101**, in 1977. This bill went even further than Bourassa's language legislation, Bill 22. More restrictions were placed on the use of languages other than French in Quebec. French was to be used in government, the courts, and business. No business could display a sign in a language other than French.

French also became the language of the workplace. Until this law was passed, an English-speaking business owner could insist on running a factory or office in English, even if all the employees were Frenchspeaking. Now Quebeckers had the right to use French on the job. French-speaking Quebeckers who didn't speak English could enter jobs they had been excluded from before. Bill 101 became known as the "Charter of the French Language."

Probably the most controversial part of the bill concerned the language of education. Immigrants to Quebec could not send their children to English-language public schools. There would still be English-language schools, but only for children already enrolled in them, or for children with at least one parent who had attended an English elementary school.

Some companies announced that they were having difficulty getting employees with school-aged children to accept transfers to their Montreal offices. Even on a temporary transfer, the employees would have to send their children to French schools.



"A House Divided."
Opinions over the
1980 sovereignty
association question
were decidedly mixed.

Liberals under Claude Ryan were urging the people of Quebec to vote "non!" The Trudeau Liberals in Ottawa also encouraged a "non" vote. A resounding "non" vote would derail the independence movement—at least for the time being.

The "oui" and "non" sides placed ads in newspapers, in magazines, on television, and on radio. Quebeckers were bombarded with propaganda. Through it all, they had to decide if sovereignty association would benefit Quebec or not. What would be the losses, especially the economic ones?

Just six days before the referendum, Prime Minister Trudeau stood before 10 000 wildly cheering supporters in Montreal. "I am making a solemn commitment," said Trudeau, "that after a 'non' vote, we are going to set into motion the mechanism of constitutional renewal. We will not stop until it has been achieved!

"Now I address myself solemnly to Canadians in other provinces!" Trudeau continued. He pointed toward the 73 Quebec members of Parliament surrounding him on the platform. "We in Quebec are putting our heads on the block. When we

tell Quebeckers to vote 'non,' we are telling you that we will not accept that a 'non' be interpreted by you as an indication that everything is fine, that everything can remain the way it was before. We want changes made. We are putting our seats at stake to obtain these changes!"

On 15 May 1980, Canada held its breath as Quebec voted. There was an overwhelming turnout at the polls. Sixty per cent voted "non," and forty per cent voted "oui." Sovereignty association had been rejected, at least for the time being. But Trudeau had made a promise about constitutional reform to the people of Quebec that he would now have to honour.

Bringing Home the Constitution

The British North America Act, Canada's constitution, was still a British act. Any changes required the approval of the British government. For years, Canadian governments had considered patriating, or bringing home, the constitution but no agreement could be reached on the changes. Trudeau decided it was time to

act. If a new Canadian constitution could be worked out, Quebec might be persuaded to remain in Canada. A new federal system would have to recognize French-speaking Quebeckers as equal partners in Confederation. But Quebec was not the only province dissatisfied with the current system. Other provinces also wanted more power to run their own affairs.

Less than a month after the Quebec referendum, Trudeau organized a conference with the provincial premiers. However, the premiers could not agree on how to revise the constitution. Trudeau then went on national television to tell Canadians that the federal government would act on its own, or unilaterally, to bring home the constitution.

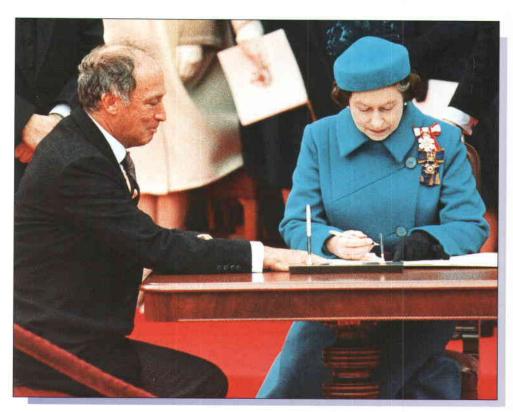
In early November 1981, Trudeau made one last attempt to involve the provincial premiers in the patriation

process. At the last moment, a deal was hammered out. All of the provinces (except Quebec) and Ottawa reached an agreement. Quebec was left out of the final meeting. Lévesque said Quebec had been betrayed. The new constitution was meant to consider the needs of Quebec, but an agreement had been made without Quebec's consent. Lévesque complained that the deal confirmed what he had always suspected, that "Quebec is alone."

Three main points were included in the agreement:

- 1. the power to amend (change) the constitution would be brought home from Britain.
- 2. changes to the constitution could be made if the federal government and seven provinces (representing 50 per cent of the population) agreed.
- 3. a **Charter of Rights and Freedoms** would be added to the constitution.





The Charter of Rights and Freedoms

The Charter of Rights and Freedoms guaranteed the democratic, civil, and legal rights of Canadians by formally writing them into the nation's constitution. Before this time, Canada had a Bill of Rights and many rights were ensured through tradition and long practice. But Prime Minister Trudeau argued that in an age of big and powerful governments, the only way to guarantee that the rights of Canadians would be protected was by formally writing them into the constitution. The Charter of Rights and Freedoms included the following:

Fundamental Freedoms

- · freedom of conscience and religion
- freedom of thought, belief, opinion, and expression, including freedom of the press and other media of communication
- · freedom of peaceful assembly
- · freedom of association

Legal Rights

- · the right to life, liberty, and security of person
- the right to a trial and a lawyer, and protection against arbitrary imprisonment

Equality Rights

 protection from discrimination on the basis of race, national or ethnic origin, colour, religion, age, sex, and mental or physical ability

Language Rights

- the right to use English and French in the government and courts of Canada and of New Brunswick
- the right to education in English or French where there are sufficient number of students

Aboriginal Rights

 recognition of the existing Aboriginal and treaty rights of the "Native Peoples" (Inuit, Indian, and Métis)

On 2 December 1981, the federal Parliament voted in favour of the patriation package. One MP left his hospital bed to vote. Liberals were all wearing red carnations in their lapels to "reflect the blossoming of a new country, the blooming of a new Canada!" But in Quebec, the PQ government ordered the Quebec flag to be flown at half-mast to signify the "insult done to Quebeckers by English Canada."

A Canadian delegation went to London, England, to ask the British Parliament for approval to change the British North America Act and received it on 8 March 1982. It was 115 years to the day since the BNA Act had become law. At last, Canada's

status as a fully independent nation was recognized. The BNA Act was officially changed and renamed the **Constitution Act 1982**.



Along with the crisis in Quebec, the 1970s saw the continuation of what would be a major trend in Canada for the rest of the century. Canada was becoming more racially and culturally diverse. Before the late 1960s, the majority of immigrants to Canada had come from western Europe



Developing Skills: Formulating a Thesis

In Unit 2, you may have done a research report on a topic related to World War I. A research report, however, is different from a research essay. In a report, you present facts that *describe* or *explain* your topic. For example, your report may have described the kinds of planes used by both sides in World War I. Similarly, a newspaper journalist on assignment in Russia could write a report describing the everyday life of Moscow's citizens.

In a research essay, you present facts to support a particular point of view or argument. A research essay on World War I planes would do more than describe the planes. It might argue, for example, that aircraft were the most underused weapon of World War I. Similarly, the journalist could write an in-depth article arguing that Moscow residents are better off now than they were under the former communist government. Writing an essay can be fun because it gives you the chance to argue a case and try to persuade other people that your ideas have merit.

Every essay needs a thesis. A thesis tells the reader what you are trying to prove. It clearly states your point of view. Here are some steps to help you formulate a thesis.

Step 1 Understand Your Topic

Suppose your topic is "The Introduction of the War Measures Act in 1970." First, do your research. Use books, magazines, films, interviews, computer databases, and other resources to investigate your topic. Decide on three or four main sub-topics. For example, you need to know what the War Measures Act was, the background to the October Crisis, and the outcome.

Step 2 Formulate a Question

Next, review the information you have collected and let it ferment in your brain. As ideas twist and turn through your head, you will be formulating an opinion or point of view on the topic. For example, you may have found that the War Measures Act

Thesis	Comment
1. The War Measures Act, 1970	This is a topic, not a thesis statement.
2. Was the War Measures Act fair when it took away the civil rights of all Canadians?	This is a good question that might lead to a thesis, but it is not a thesis. It does not state a point of view.
3. The War Measures Act was invoked in 1970.	A statement of fact is a weak thesis. A thesis must take a stand that can be argued.
4. Something had to be done about the crisis in Quebec in 1970.	Weak thesis. What had to be done? Why? This statement is vague and does not take a clear stand that can be argued.
The War Measures Act should have been invoked because the country was facing a national emergency.	Good thesis. It clearly summarizes a point of view, is specific, and can be argued. You can find evidence to support this thesis.
6. The War Measures Act should not have been invoked because it took away the civil rights of all Canadians.	Good thesis. It clearly summarizes a point of view, is specific, and can be argued.

took away the civil rights of all Canadians. You do not think this was justified, since only a small radical group of people was actually involved in terrorist activities. This idea could become the basis for formulating a question, which you can then use to develop your thesis.

Question: Was the War Measures Act fair when it took away the civil rights of all Canadian citizens?

Step 3 State Your Thesis

Now you are ready to formulate a thesis statement clearly in a sentence. Your thesis statement should reflect the stand you are taking and be arguable.

Thesis Statement: The War Measures Act should not have been invoked in 1970 because it violated the rights of all Canadian citizens.

Step 4 Evaluate Your Thesis Statement

Once you have formulated a thesis statement, evaluate it. Use the criteria outlined in the chart on the previous page to check that your thesis is a sound one.

Step 5 Can You Support Your Thesis?

Finally, ask yourself if you can find evidence to support your thesis. Are resources with the informa-

tion you need available? You will find that either numbers 5 or 6 in the chart can be researched. Many resources about the War Measures Act, both pro and con, are readily available. Numbers 5 or 6 can be supported by evidence, and so are suitable thesis statements.

Practise It!

Read the following paragraph from a research essay. The first paragraph in a research essay should clearly state the thesis. Decide what is wrong with this paragraph. Then rewrite the paragraph to improve it. The topic is: "Should Quebec separate from Canada?"

For the Parti Québécois, the answer is perfectly clear: Quebec should separate from Canada. But many citizens in other parts of Canada do not agree. To decide whether Quebec should separate you have to examine several issues. Is the French-Canadian culture going to be able to survive within Canada? Would it be economically beneficial for Quebec to break away from the rest of Canada? When these questions have been answered, the correct future for Quebec will be obvious to everyone.

(especially Great Britain) and the United States. In the 1960s and the 1970s, the trend shifted. Many more immigrants came from the Asia Pacific region and countries in the Caribbean. What led to this shift? In the 1970s, an official policy of multiculturalism and a new immigration act were major factors.

Multiculturalism

Multiculturalism refers to a society in which many different cultural groups live together. The government's policy of multiculturalism actually came out of the crisis in French-English relations. To answer Quebec's concerns, the federal government had set up the Royal Com-

mission on Bilingualism and Biculturalism in 1963. In interviews and hearings across the country, the commission had heard not just from people of French and British heritage, but from other ethnocultural communities as well.

Many people from these communities had been in Canada for generations. They had suffered through the Depression and made important contributions through two world wars. Now they wanted full recognition as Canadians, while keeping their individual cultural identities. They wanted the right to practise the traditions that made them unique. They argued against the American tradition of a "melting pot," in which many different cultures

are assimilated into one. Instead, they thought Canadian society should be like a "mosaic." In a mosaic, each individual part keeps its own distinct identity while contributing to the picture as a whole.

The commission agreed. In its final report, it included recommendations to:

- recognize all Canadians as full and equal participants in Canadian society
- persuade Canadian institutions, such as businesses and government ministries, to encourage this cultural diversity through their programs and policies.

The Trudeau government accepted these recommendations. In 1971, Canada became the first country in the world to adopt multiculturalism as official government policy.

But not everyone was happy with the new the policy. There were three main objections:

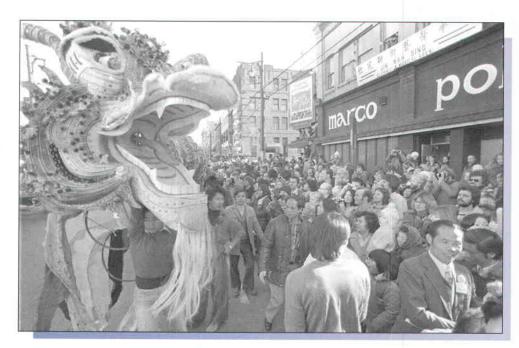
 Some people argued that multiculturalism would divide Canadians rather than unite them. As a result, it would

- have a negative impact on Canadian identity.
- 2. Some people in English-speaking Canada complained the policy would erode the country's British heritage.
- 3. Some people in French-speaking Canada accused the government of using the policy to thwart Quebec nationalism. They complained that French Canadians would have no more status than other non-British ethnocultural groups.

But the majority of Canadians, especially in urban areas, supported the new policy. The growing ethnic diversity in large cities such as Toronto and Vancouver soon became obvious.

Multiculturalism, as a government policy, represented a new direction. For the first time, the Canadian government was officially recognizing the rights and distinct identities of the many different cultures in the country. The policy became law with the passage of the Canadian Mul-

Canada became more ethnically diverse during the 1970s. This was especially true of large cities such as Vancouver. Why do you think most immigrants in the 1970s settled in cities rather than in rural areas?



ticulturalism Act in 1988. Canadian governments could no longer see the country as just bicultural, with two founding nations (French and British). In fact, this view had ignored the rights of Aboriginal nations since Confederation.

Multiculturalism did not eliminate discrimination or racism. But it did reinforce the view that all ethnocultural and racial communities in Canada had a right to be treated equally. The policy was a basis for later laws that promoted equal access to jobs, housing, and education. Cultural festivals, heritage language classes, and other cultural events received government support. The policy's effects were also felt in the Immigration Act of 1978 and the Employment Equity Act of 1986.

The Immigration Act of 1978

After the changes to the Immigration Act in 1967, more people from Asia, Africa, the Caribbean, and Latin America came to Canada. But the points system favoured people who were fluent in English or French, were well educated, and had highly marketable skills. This meant that the majority of immigrants were still from Britain, western Europe, and the US.

During the economic boom in the 1960s and 1970s, fewer people wanted to leave these regions to try their luck in a new country. Canada, however, still needed skilled people from other countries to work in its own booming job market. The Trudeau government set about reforming the country's immigration policy.

The **Immigration Act of 1978** had three major objectives. The first was to attract people who would "promote the domestic and international needs of Canada." They would be assessed according to a point system in which education, training, experience, and personal suitability were the factors that counted. The second goal was to reunite families that

had been separated for one reason or another. The third was to accept "the displaced and the persecuted" for humanitarian reasons.

The act recognized three classes of immigrants.

• Independent class were individuals who had family members in Canada willing to sponsor them and help them get established. They were also people who had \$250 000 to invest for three years, or were willing to set up and work in a business. By 1987, the top source countries for business immigrants were Hong Kong, South Korea, Taiwan, the United States, and France. Independent class immigrants could also gain entry on a point system that awarded certain professions more points than others. For example, nurses and therapists who were urgently needed in Canada got 10 points. Doctors got zero points. Veterinarians got one point.

Which region of the world became the major source of Canadian immigrants after the late 1960s? Why did the shift occur?

Top Ten Source Countries for Immigrants to Canada, 1968–1994

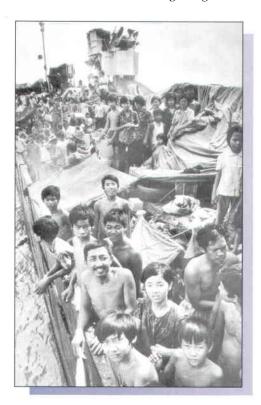
1968	1984	1994
Great Britain	Vietnam	Hong Kong
United States	Hong Kong	Philippines
Italy	United States	India
Germany	India	China
Hong Kong	Great Britain	Taiwan
France	Poland	Sri Lanka
Austria	Philippines	Great Britain
Greece	El Salvador	United States
Portugal	Jamaica	Vietnam
Yugoslavia	China	Bosnia-Herzegovina

Source: Data for 1968 and 1984 from Leo Dreidger, *Multi-Ethnic Canada: Identities and Inequalities* (Toronto: Oxford University Press, 1966), pp. 60-61. Data for 1994 from *A Stronger Canada: 1998 Annual Immigration Plan*, published by Citizenship and Immigration Canada.

- Family class were wives or husbands and unmarried children under 21, and parents or grandparents of people who were already citizens or permanent residents of Canada.
- Refugee class were persons who feared or suffered persecution in their own countries because of their political ideas, religion, race, or nationality. Refugees could apply for immigrant status from within Canada. Other immigrants had to apply for entry visas before coming to Canada.

Before this act, Canada had admitted refugees only by making special exceptions to immigration regulations. Normal rules and procedures were set aside to allow refugees into Canada in emergency situations. With the 1978 Immigration Act, the admission of refugees became part of Canadian immigration law for the first time. The law clearly signalled Canada's humanitarian commitment to resettling refugees. The

Between 1979 and 1981, Canada took in close to 60 000 Vietnamese refugees. In what way was this response different from Canada's reaction to the plight of Jewish refugees before World War II?



act also put a higher priority on reuniting families than earlier immigration acts had.

Between 1980 and 1986, immigrants from developing countries in Asia, Latin America, and Africa made up 65 per cent of the total. The new 1978 regulations increased the racial and ethnic diversity of Canada, especially in the major urban centres.

Refugee Experiences

Canada accepted many more refugees after the Immigration Act was passed in 1978. The first major refugee resettlement program was for the Vietnamese "boat people." For 20 years, Vietnam had been ravaged by a war between North and South. In 1975, the war finally ended. The communist forces were victorious and took over South Vietnam. The country was in economic ruin. Because of the bombing. much of the land was unusable for farming. Fear of what lay ahead and the desire to give their children a better life drove many Vietnamese to flee their country. In 1979, after a conflict between Vietnam and China, many Chinese-Vietnamese were expelled from their country.

In the midst of all these conflicts, over a million Vietnamese people escaped between 1978 and 1981. Crowded into small boats, they risked their lives on the South China Sea. Often, their boats were attacked by pirates. Food and water were scarce. Thousands perished in the cold waters. Hau Truong, who was only a small child at the time, remembers: "It was the middle of the night. I remember falling out of a small canoe and being so cold. My Mom caught me. Always these memories of water and darkness."

Thousands of these Vietnamese boat people made their way to Hong Kong or the Philippines, where they were crowded into refugee camps. When the camps became too full, new arrivals were turned away. In desperation, many had to remain on board the boats for months. It was from these camps that many Vietnamese applied for permission to come to Canada.

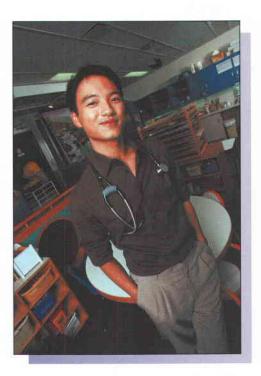
Canada offered two forms of sponsorship. In some cases, the government sponsored the refugees. In other cases, an organization or family provided sponsorship. Many Canadian church groups and other individuals offered help. They provided food, shelter, and winter clothing. They also helped the people find jobs and places to live.

More than 1.5 million Vietnamese people left Vietnam after 1975 and several thousand came to Canada. Today, more than 100 000 Vietnamese Canadians are part of Canadian society.

Other refugees came from Latin American countries. They had to flee danger in their own countries and make challenging adjustments in Canada. Some highly educated refugees were not able to practise their professions in Canada. They found jobs as manual labourers to provide for their families. The experience of Felipe Gonzalez Guzman (not his real name) is an example. ("Guzman" did not want to use his real name for fear of endangering members of his family in El Salvador.)

In the late 1960s, the El Salvadoran government began cracking down on all labour unions. By 1974, union members suspected of being communists were being killed by government-sponsored police. Guzman had joined the teachers' union in 1973. After being arrested and released in 1974 for participating in an anti-government demonstration, he transferred to a school in another city. He helped build a new school there and was active in both community affairs and the teachers' federation.

In 1977, he was warned that the army was looking for him. He had to bribe an official to get transferred again, this time



Hau Truong escaped with his family from Vietnam in 1981. He went on to become a medical student at McMaster University in Hamilton, Ontario. When he graduates as a pediatrician, he hopes to join Doctors Without Borders, an organization that performs lifesaving work in war zones.

to the country's capital of San Salvador. His pay as a teacher was low, so he took on a second job in a hardware store. He began to fear for his life when he realized he was being followed. Soon afterward, his wife, also a teacher, received a death threat in the mail. Guzman borrowed money from relatives, and he and his family fled the country to Costa Rica, pretending to be tourists

The Guzmans applied for and received refugee status in Costa Rica, but Guzman had little hope of finding a teaching job. There was a three-year waiting list. He struggled to support his family, picking produce on farms 12 to 13 hours a day, six days a week. After three difficult years, Guzman was encouraged to apply as a refugee to Canada. Two months after his interview at the Canadian embassy, the Guzman family received their papers and a loan to pay for plane tickets. They arrived in Vancouver on 1 July 1980 and were taken care of by an employee from Manpower and Immigration.

Within a month, the Guzmans were living in an apartment and learning English. A priest from a nearby Roman Catholic church helped Guzman get a job as a hotel janitor. After several years, Guzman found a better-paying job as a school janitor. The Guzmans were grateful for the safe home they found in Canada. As a former teacher. Guzman sometimes found it hard working in a school as a janitor. His English improved steadily over the years, but he felt he was too old to retrain as an English-speaking teacher. His greatest hopes were for his three children. In Canada, they had opportunities they would never have had in El Salvador.



Impact of the Baby Boom

Immigration was just one population factor that shaped Canadian society in the 1970s. The baby boom was another. As the boomers grew up—from children, to adolescents, teenagers, and adults—they had

a major impact on Canadian society. In many ways, this was simply because there were so many of them.

The first noticeable effect was an increased demand for schools and teachers. In the 1950s, new primary and secondary schools sprang up across the country. About 500 000 new students entered school each year. In the 1960s, new community colleges and universities opened, while existing schools had to increase their staffs.

In the 1970s, the first wave of baby boomers began to enter the job market. Highly educated and well trained, these young people expected good salaries and generous benefits packages. Both as teenagers and young adults, they often had money to spend. The baby boomers helped fuel the Canadian economy during the 1960s and 1970s.

As teenagers they lived at home and were not expected to contribute to family income, as many young people had been in earlier decades. Instead, their parents

FAST FORWARD

Canada Pension Plan Account (in millions of dollars)

Year	Annual Receipts	Annual Payments	Annual Surplus	Accumulated Net Balance
1966	95	6	89	89
1967	600	8	592	681
1968	685	13	672	1 353
1969	785	30	755	2 108

Year	Annual Receipts	Annual Payments	Annual DEFICIT	Accumulated Net Balance
1994	13 368	14 589	- 1 221	40 951

Source: Receiver General for Canada, Public Accounts of Canada 1969-1994. Ottawa: Minister of Supply and Services Canada, 1969-1994.

What happened to the Canada Pension Plan Account in the 1960s? What had happened to it by 1994? How can you account for the change?

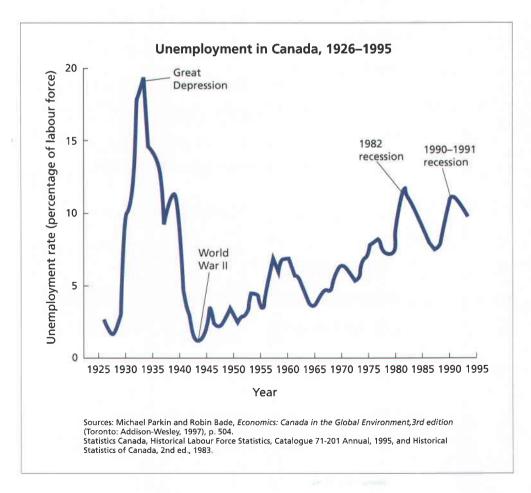
often gave them pocket money or allowances. The boomers created a market for fast food, clothing fads, popular music, and cosmetics. As young adults, many bought cars, televisions, stereo systems, and the latest fashions.

But as more and more baby boomers entered the job market, unemployment rates rose. Jobs could not be created fast enough to keep up with the numbers who were looking for work. Unemployment rates in the 1970s and early 1980s were higher than at any time since the Great Depression.

In the 1980s, many of the boomers reached the mid stage in their careers and began buying houses. The demand caused housing prices in major cities such as Toronto and Vancouver to skyrocket.

Owning a house moved beyond the reach of many young couples.

Today, many people are also asking what will happen when the baby boomers eventually retire from the working world. Will Canada's health care and pension services be able to withstand the strain? In the 1980s, there were six "producers" or working-age people contributing to the economy for each retired "consumer" of health and pension services. By the year 2031, when the youngest boomers reach 65, there will be only two working-age producers for each consumer. In other words, the number of people contributing to pension and health services will be shrinking just as the numbers who draw on these same services reach their maximum size.

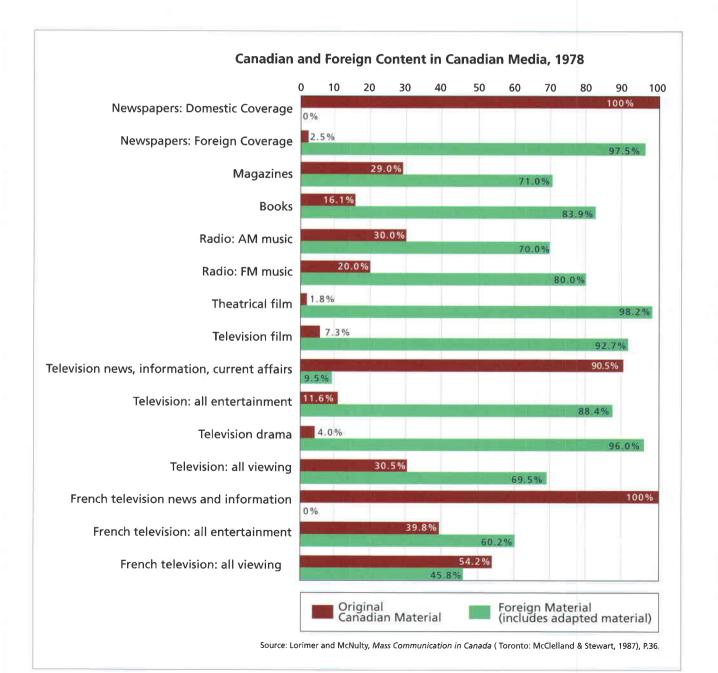


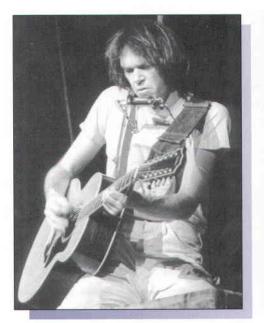
Canadian
unemployment rates
began a dramatic rise
in the 1970s as the
baby boomers poured
into the job market.
The rate peaked in
1982-83 at about
12 percent, its highest
mark since the worst
years of the Great
Depression.



In which media was foreign content highest in 1978? Why do you think this was so? Popular culture in Canada during the 1970s was influenced by two forces: the tastes of the baby boomers and the "infiltration" of American culture. Young people continued to listen to rock music and to

watch movies and TV shows that originated in Hollywood. By this point, however, many more Canadians were expressing concern over the Americanization of Canadian culture. A story circulated of how a Canadian high school student was asked to identify Margaret Laurence and







Neil Young and Anne Murray were popular Canadian musicians in the 1970s. Although both artists developed large followings in the US, their careers received a tremendous boost in Canada from CRTC regulations that demanded 30 per cent Canadian content on popular music radio stations.

Earle Birney, two of Canada's most respected writers. The student replied, "Never heard of them. They must be Canadian."

In 1968, the government had established the Canadian Radio-Television and Telecommunications Commission (CRTC). The CRTC issued broadcasting licences to Canadian-owned companies. It made sure that 30 per cent of the music played on AM stations was Canadian. Canadians listened to entertainers such as Anne Murray, Neil Young, Bachman-Turner Overdrive, Rush, and Stompin' Tom Connors in addition to popular American artists. The law required that 60 per cent of primetime television be "made in Canada." Viewers watched Bruno Gerussi in The Beachcombers, Al Waxman in The King of Kensington, and Adrienne Clarkson in The Fifth Estate. All of these shows featured Canadian actors, writers, and producers.

The Canadian government also spent millions of dollars to help build a Canadian film industry. Films made in Quebec promoted French culture and won some major international awards. Claude Jutra won acclaim for his film *Mon Oncle*

Antoine (1971) about life in a Quebec asbestos town. In 1975, Michel Brault's film Les Ordres won an important award at the Cannes Film Festival. The following year, Jean Beaudin's J. A. Martin, Photographe won the award for best Canadian film.

The English language commercial film industry and the National Film Board also produced important Canadian films. These included *Goin' Down the Road* (1970), the story of two Maritimers trying to establish themselves in Toronto, and *Why Shoot the Teacher?* (1977), the story of a young teacher in a one-room school on the Prairies in the 1930s.



Netsurfer
Find out more about the
Heritage Canada Foundation at
www.heritagecanada.org/
English/index.html.

In 1973, the federal government established the **Heritage Canada Foundation**. Its goal was to preserve and educate people about significant historic, architectural, natural, and scenic sites in Canada. Since 1973, the foundation has preserved more than 75 heritage buildings across the country. Beginning in 1978, it also started a Main Street program that helped to revitalize many neglected downtown areas. To raise people's awareness of heritage issues, the foundation has lobbied to have the third Monday in February set aside as a holiday called Heritage Day.

0 6 Arts Talk



Alice Munro

Alice Munro is one of the best-known short story writers in the world. Many of her stories are set in a small southwest-ern Ontario town, much like the one in which she was born. Readers around the world have become familiar with life in small town Ontario from her works.



After attending the University of Western Ontario for two years, Alice Munro moved to Victoria, BC. There she and her husband opened a bookstore, Munro's Books. Alice began publishing short stories in literary magazines. In 1972, she returned to Ontario and settled in Clinton, not far from her birthplace in Wingham.

Throughout the 1970s, Munro established herself as one of the finest fiction writers in Canada. Although she published one novel, she focused mainly on short fiction. A volume of stories called Something I've Been Meaning to Tell You appeared in 1974, and the story collection Who Do You Think You Are? won the 1978 Governor-General's Award. Altogether, she has published nine collections of stories and won the Governor-General's Award for fiction three times. Her 1998 collection, the Love of a Good Woman, won the prestigious Giller Prize. Many of Munro's stories first appeared in the well-known American magazine, The New Yorker.

In her earliest stories, Munro often focused on a young girl who felt at odds with herself and her surroundings. She explored the complicated relationship between mothers and daughters, and reflected on how the passage of time affects the way we think about past events. In her later work, she has written about aging and adult relationships. Asked once if her stories were based on her own experiences as a girl and a woman, she replied that her work was "autobiographical in form, but not in fact."

Margaret Atwood

Margaret Atwood spent much of her childhood in two different worlds. Her father was an entomologist who often took the family to the forests of northern Ontario in the summers. In the winters, the Atwoods lived in Ottawa or Toronto. The striking contrast



between the bush and the city had an influence on Margaret Atwood and her later writing.

Margaret Atwood was born in Ottawa in 1939 and raised in Toronto. Her education was at the University of Toronto, Radcliffe College, and Harvard University. Under the influence of the well-known literary critic Northrop Frye at Toronto, Atwood developed a fascination with myths and their meanings. Another major theme in her work has been the relationship of Canadians with their harsh but beautiful land.

During the 1970s, Atwood published works that showed her to be a talented and insightful writer of poetry, fiction, and literary criticism. The Journals of Susanna Moodie (1970) was a poem cycle Atwood imagined being narrated by the nineteenth century Canadian pioneer Susanna Moodie. Through these poems, Atwood explored the conflict between European value systems and the hard life pioneers faced in a new land.

Three novels Margaret Atwood published during the 1970s—Surfacing (1972), Lady Oracle (1976), and Life Before Man (1979)—examined relations between the sexes from a feminist point of view. She also published an important work of literary criticism: Survival: A Thematic Guide to Canadian Literature (1972). In this controversial book, Atwood charged that Canadians had neglected their own literature. She challenged writers and readers alike to celebrate Canadian literary

achievements of the past, and to develop the tradition in the future.

Atwood's work has won an impressive collection of awards. These include the Governor-General's Award (twice), the Molson Prize, a Guggenheim Fellowship Award, the Giller Prize, and the Commonwealth Literary Prize. In 1981, she was made a

Companion of the Order of Canada, and in 1994 the government of France honoured her as a Chevalier dans l'Ordre des Arts et des Lettres. She has developed a wide international following, and is one of the Canadian writers as well known in the United States, Great Britain, Australia, and France as she is at home.

- 1. In what ways did the books Margaret Atwood published during the 1970s reflect the concerns of that time? List three of these concerns.
- 2. What were some of the key themes in Alice Munro's writing?
- 3. Read a story by Alice Munro or Margaret Atwood and write a brief appreciation of it. Tell why you would or would not read other stories by the same writer.

Canada's performing arts also blossomed, thanks in part to government financial support through arts councils. Suddenly, a whole group of small Toronto theatres began to flourish. Original Canadian plays were produced and made a stunning impact. David Freeman's *Creeps*, on the subject of cerebral palsy, was a hit and went on to New York. David Luscombe's production of *Ten Lost Years* was a moving stage portrayal of Canadian life during the Great Depression.

But new Canadian theatre was by no means emerging only in Toronto. Michel Tremblay's *Les Belles Soeurs* entertained both French and English language audiences. Talent from the Vancouver East Cultural Centre produced outstanding shows including *Billy Bishop Goes to War* and *Eighteen Wheels*.

Canadian writers also flourished, and the number of Canadian publishing companies almost doubled in the 1970s. In 1976, one of Canada's most famous critics, Northrop Frye, talked about "the colossal verbal explosion that has taken place in Canada since 1960." Mordecai Richler, Gabrielle Roy, Leonard Cohen, Margaret Laurence, Robertson Davies, and W. O. Mitchell were just some of the writers gaining recognition. "Can Lit" became a recognized field of study at universities.

Canadian Sports

The 1970s witnessed a number of land-marks in Canadian sports. In 1976, Montreal hosted the summer Olympics. It was during these games that Nadia Comaneci, a 13-year-old gymnast from Romania, exploded onto the world stage by recording seven perfect marks of 10.00 for her routines. No gymnast before her had ever received one perfect mark at the Olympics. Canadian athletes also more than doubled their medal count over previous Olympics, winning 11 medals in total.

Cost overruns and politics to some extent overshadowed the sports activities at the Montreal Olympics. Even though Mayor Jean Drapeau declared that "the Olympics can no more have a deficit than a man can have a baby," construction fees for the different facilities created heavy debts for Montreal and the province of Quebec. The

Olympic Stadium alone had originally been budgeted for \$30 million, but wound up costing more than \$800 million.

Sports and Politics

The Olympics were also not without international political controversy. Just before the games began, 20 African nations withdrew their athletes. They were protesting the fact that New Zealand was at the games. The year before a New Zealand rugby team had toured South Africa. South Africa at this time had an official policy of apartheid. All Black people in the country were denied basic civil and democratic rights. Other countries in Africa strongly denounced apartheid. They wanted support from other world nations to pressure South Africa into abandoning its apartheid policy. Their boycott of the games was one way of making their point.

Then the Trudeau government created an international furor by refusing to allow Taiwanese athletes to compete under a banner that identified them as coming from the Republic of China. In 1970, the Canadian government had officially recognized the People's Republic of China and withdrawn recognition from Taiwan. This was called the government's one-China policy. The People's Republic of China was not participating in the Montreal games. But Trudeau did not want to alienate that country's leadership by allowing Taiwan to identify itself as the "Republic of China." Despite protests from several world leaders, including US President Gerald Ford, Trudeau refused to relent. The Taiwanese athletes left the country before the games began.

The Canada-Russia Summit Series, 1972

Perhaps the most memorable sporting event of the 1970s was the **Canada-Russia Summit Series** in 1972. Canadians

had long thought of hockey as their national sport. But in the 1960s and early 1970s, the Soviet Union completely dominated the world of amateur hockey. Canadians were tired of seeing their teams humiliated by the "full-time amateurs" the Soviet Union sent to the Olympics and other world events. If we could only put together a team of our best professionals, the thinking went, we'd show the world who produces the best hockey players. In 1972 this dream came true. The result was arguably the most exciting sporting event in Canadian history. The series also caused a national identity crisis, as the Soviet team pushed the Canadian players to the limit of their abilities.

On 2 September 1972, the Montreal Forum hosted the first game of the eight-game series. Before the game started, Canadian players and their fans believed victory was in the bag. Barely 30 seconds had gone by before Phil Esposito potted Canada's first goal. Six minutes later, Paul Henderson made the score 2-0. The rout appeared to be on.

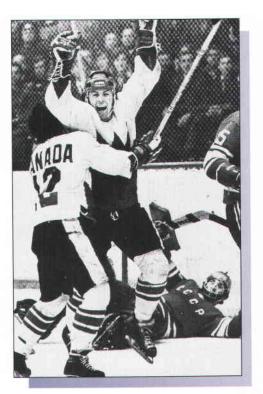
By the end of the first period, however, the score was tied. The Soviets were in superb physical condition, while the Canadians, after their summer layoff, were far from their mid-season form. By the end of the third period, the Soviets had turned the tables. It was they who routed the Canadians, by a score of 7-3. The nation went numb with shock.

Although the Canadians beat the Soviets decisively in Game 2 in Toronto, Game 3 was a tie, and the Soviets roared back to take Game 4 in Vancouver 5-3. The Canadians left the ice with the boos of their fans ringing in their ears. "We're trying our best!" said Phil Esposito in the post-game press conference, but by then few were listening. When the team's plane left for Moscow, nobody showed up to wish them luck. Said team coach Harry Sinden: "The

entire nation seemed to turn away against the 35 players and coaches that made up the team. We really felt like we were on our own when we went to Moscow."

Canadian hopes seemed doomed after the team dropped the first game in the Soviet Union. Now the Canadians were down 3-1-1 and had to win all of the last three games to pull out a series victory. Incredibly, the Canadians scraped out one-goal victories in games 6 and 7. Each time, Paul Henderson shot the winning goal. Now the series was tied, and the stage was set for the final showdown.

The game was beamed to Canada by satellite. Although it was played at night in Moscow, it came through on Canadian TV sets and radios in the afternoon. A large part of the country shut down to watch. People stayed home from work. TV sets were placed in school gymnasiums so students could watch. University professors cancelled classes so they could see the game in the faculty lounge. On the ice, the players were locked in a desperate struggle. Asked years later what it felt like to play in that game, Phil Esposito denied it was a game at all. "It was a war," he said. "It was a stinking war."



The Soviets carried a 5-3 lead into the third period. Esposito scored, and then Yvon Cournoyer beat the Soviet goal-tender to even the game at 5-5. When the announcer revealed there was one minute left, the crowd surged to its feet and

Paul Henderson scored the winning goal in the last 34 seconds of the deciding game in the famous series between Team Canada and the Soviet national team, 28 September 1972.



Netsurfer
Find out more about hockey,
Canada's national pastime, at
www.macabees.ab.ca/
canada/hockey.html.



Students cheer
Henderson's winning
goal. Schools across
the country set up
televisions in
classrooms and
gymnasiums for
students to watch the
game. Why was this
hockey series so
significant?

roared encouragement at the Soviet team. Esposito brought the puck out of the Canadian end and passed to Cournoyer, who shot and missed. Henderson tried to get to the rebound, but went sprawling on his stomach. There was a mad flurry in front of the net until Henderson, on his feet again, scored the winning goal with 34 seconds left on the clock. The Canadian team had pulled out the series victory.

Although the series, and especially that final game, brought the whole country together in a unique way, Canadians were shocked to realize they could no longer take their supremacy in hockey for granted. The Soviets had demonstrated that with speed, teamwork, and accurate passing, they were a match for Canada's best. Over the long term, this series changed the style of Canadian hockey. It also opened the door in the NHL to players from the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe.

A National Anthem at Last!

There is a strong connection between a nation's identity and its symbols. In a large and culturally diverse country such as Canada, national symbols can remind us of our unity and distinct identity. During the 1960s and 1970s, there was a drive in Canada to strengthen our sense of identity through these symbols.

In 1965, Canada had raised a new national flag with the red maple leaf. There was no trace in this flag of the British Union Jack. The flag signalled that Canada was shedding its colonial past and establishing a distinct identity of its own. The maple leaf, as a symbol, reflected a unique part of the Canadian landscape. Officials hoped it could be acceptable to Quebec and people in rest of the country.

But oddly enough, Canada had no official national anthem until 1 July 1980. On

that date, Parliament adopted *O Canada* as the country's official national anthem. The song had first been performed 100 years earlier, on 24 June 1880, at an official function in Quebec City during the St. Jean-Baptiste Day celebrations. Calixa Lavallée, a Quebec musician who had won fame in France and the United States, composed the music. The French lyrics were written by the Quebec poet and judge Adolphe-Basile Routhier. Many English versions appeared over the years. The most popular one was written in 1908 by another Quebec judge, Robert Stanley Weir.

By World War I, O Canada had become almost as popular as its two closest rivals for the honour of national anthem, God Save the King and The Maple Leaf Forever. God Save the King was the British national anthem. The Maple Leaf Forever had been written in 1867 by Alexander Muir, a Scottish immigrant. It was meant to celebrate Confederation and heralded events such as the British conquest of Quebec in 1759 and battles during the War of 1812. Though popular, like God Save the King, it did not recognize French Canadians or the other diverse peoples who were part of Canada.

By 1942, Canada was involved in World War II, and many people thought one of these songs should be officially proclaimed the national anthem. When Prime Minister Mackenzie King was asked, he replied that he did not think the time was right.

There are times and seasons for all things, and in this time of war, when there are other more important questions with which Parliament has to deal, we might well continue to follow what has become the custom in Canada in recent years of regarding God Save the King and O Canada each as national anthems and entitled to similar recognition.

There the matter rested until 1967. when the government tried to have O Canada declared the national anthem in time for the opening of Expo 67. Problems arose with the copyright to the lyrics. Nothing more was done until 1980, when Governor-General Edward Schrever proclaimed the Act Respecting the National Anthem of Canada. This act made O Canada an official symbol of the country.

O Canada! Our home and native land! True patriot love in all thy sons command. With glowing hearts we see thee rise, The True North strong and free! From far and wide, O Canada, We stand on guard for thee. God keep our land glorious and free! O Canada. we stand on guard for thee. O Canada. we stand on guard for thee.



O Canada! Terre de nos aïeux. Ton front est ceint de fleurons glorieux! Car ton bras sait porter l'épée, Il sait porter la croix! Ton histoire est une épopée Des plus brillants exploits. Et ta valeur, de foi trempée, Protégera nos foyers et nos droits, Protégera nos foyers et nos droits.

The official English and French lyrics of O Canada, There are more verses in each language, but they are rarely sung. What other symbols of Canada can you think of?

Activities

Understand Facts and Concepts

1. Add these new terms to your Factfile.

October Crisis War Measures Act Ouebec Official Languages Act (Bill 22) Bill 101 (Quebec) Alliance Quebec 1980 Quebec referendum sovereignty association Constitution Act 1982

Charter of Rights and Freedoms multiculturalism Immigration Act of 1978 Canadian Radio-Television and Telecommunications Commission (CRTC) Heritage Canada Foundation Canada-Russia Summit Series O Canada

- 2. Identify each of the following people and explain their roles in the October Crisis.
 - a) James Cross
 - b) Pierre Laporte
 - c) Pierre Trudeau
 - d) Robert Bourassa

- 3. What civil rights did Canadians lose when the War Measures Act was introduced?
- 4. a) Briefly explain why the Trudeau government wanted to encourage multiculturalism.
 - b) What were some of the long-term effects of the multiculturalism policy?
- 5. a) What steps did the Liberal government take in the 1970s and early 1980s to protect Canadian culture?
 - b) Describe the results.

Think and Communicate

- 6. a) Role play a conversation involving the following people just after the introduction of Bill 101 in Quebec.
 - i) a francophone Quebecker
 - ii) an anglophone Quebecker
 - iii) a new immigrant to Quebec of neither English nor French origin
 - iv) a Canadian outside Quebec
 - b) Hold a debriefing session after the role play. Do you think the Parti Québécois government was justified in introducing the Bill? Explain your point of view.
- 7. a) Compare the text of Gilles Vigneault's *Mon Pays* to the text of *O Canada*. How do the two songs differ in tone? What mood does *Mon Pays* create when you read it? Why is it a fitting "anthem" for the Quebec separatist movement?
 - b) See if you can get a recording of *Mon Pays*. Do your thoughts about the song change after listening to it performed to music? If so, how?
- 8. Using a web diagram, chart the effects the baby boom had on Canadian society.
- 9. a) Using a chart like the one below, work in groups to compare patterns in immigration to Canada from 1896 to 1984.

Immigration	1896-1913	1920s-1930s	1945-1967	1967-1978	1978-1984
Objectives					
Major source countries of immigrants					
Criteria for admission					
Results (total numbers, contributions, etc.)					

- b) Briefly summarize the changes in immigration to Canada over these different periods.
- 10. a) One of the goals of official multiculturalism is to overcome discrimination on the basis of colour, cultural background, language, and religion. How do you think a multiculturalism policy might fight discrimination?

- b) Do you think it has been successful? Explain.
- 11. a) Create a bulletin board display entitled "National Symbols of Canada." Do research to find out about the origin of the symbols. You could start with this web site: www.pch.gc.ca/ceremonial_symb/english/emb_anthem.html.
 - b) Choose one or two symbols and write a short report explaining to what extent you think the symbols represent all Canada and all Canadians today.

Apply Your Knowledge

- 12. a) Is the War Measures Act ever justifiable in peacetime? Explain your answer.
 - b) Suggest other ways the government might have handled the October Crisis in Ouebec.
- 13. Take a stand. Social protest sometimes involves violence. The FLQ Crisis was an example. Do you think violence is ever justified in drawing attention to a group's goals? Explain your reasons.
- 14. Read a short story or poem by a Québécois writer that deals with life in Quebec. Report to the class summarizing the theme of the piece and describing your impressions.
- 15. Would the Canada-Russia Summit Series have had as big an effect on Canada without live TV transmission? Explain why or why not.

Get to the Source

16. There is controversy today over whether or not multiculturalism is beneficial to Canada. Read the two points of view below.

Multiculturalism ... has heightened our differences rather than diminished them; it has preached tolerance rather than encouraging acceptance; and it is leading us into a divisiveness so entrenched that we face a future of multiple solitudes with no central notion to bind us.

Source: Neil Bissoondath, Selling Illusions: The Cult of Multiculturalism in Canada (Toronto, Penguin, 1994).

Multiculturalism in the 1990s is about removing barriers to the full participation, full contribution, and full citizenship of all Canadians, regardless of their background and cultural heritage. Its policies are aimed at breaking down the barriers to equal rights and responsibilities—barriers such as racism, low literacy levels, and disregard for the rights of minorities.

Source: Senator Donald H. Oliver, *The Montreal Gazette* (Sept. 1, 1996), p. A6.

- a) Summarize each point of view in your own words.
- b) What is your view? Explain using specific examples.



New Directions in the Economy and Society

*

The Beaver and the Elephant

"Living next door to the United States," said Prime Minister Trudeau, "is like sleeping in the same bed as an elephant. No matter how friendly and even-tempered is the beast, one is affected by every twitch and grunt!" If the elephant rolls over in its sleep, the Canadian "beaver must be ready

to jump." Most of the time, the elephant and beaver get along very well. Once in a while, however, the elephant gets a little grumpy, or the beaver feels threatened. When this happens, these oddly matched neighbours sit down and talk about their problems.

In many ways, the comparison made by Trudeau was a good one. The United States is



certainly a giant—one of the richest and most powerful nations in the world. Its population and economic production are 10 times that of Canada. The United States also greatly overshadows Canada as a military power.

Throughout the twentieth century, Canadians have been alarmed

over the amount of control the American "elephant" has on our lives. In the 1970s, the issue caused particular concern. Canadians became acutely aware of how our economy, culture, and foreign policy could all be affected by the twitches and grunts of the elephant.

- Do you agree that the image of the beaver and elephant is a good one to describe Canadian-American relations? Why or why not? Provide specific examples to support your answer.
- 2. What other images would you suggest? Justify your choices.

⊗ Who Controls Canada's Economy?

In the 1950s and 1960s, American control over the Canadian economy had become a hotly debated issue. American investment in Canadian industries had been increasing since the beginning of the century. Until the 1970s, Canadian governments did not discourage this investment. Many government officials and business leaders believed that Canada needed investment from outside the country to develop its industries. The Canadian population was not large enough, they believed, to pay for its own economic development.

But in the 1950s, there was an upsurge in American ownership of Canadian industries, and alarm bells began to sound. Had Canada given up too much control of its economy to the United States? The 1950s and 1960s saw the rise of large multinational corporations, which usually had headquarters in the United States and a branch plant in Canada. Major decisions on how these corporations were run were made in the US.

Between 1957 and 1972, the federal government called for four reports on foreign investment in Canada. By the early 1970s, these studies had shown just how much of the Canadian economy was owned by foreign investors, especially Americans. One of these studies noted that, "No other country . . . seems prepared to tolerate so high a degree of foreign ownership as exists in Canada."

American control in some sectors of the Canadian economy was especially high. US ownership of the oil and gas industry was at 61 per cent in 1968. It was almost as high in the mining and smelting industry. Many people feared that if the trend continued, the United States would take over the Canadian economy.

Opponents of American investment argued that it:

- allowed profits to flow out of Canada to the United States
- meant top management jobs often went to Americans, not Canadians
- took Canada's natural resources out of the country for processing (Canada then had to buy back the resources as expensive manufactured goods)
- made us more "American" in our tastes
- discouraged technological advances in Canada (it was easier to borrow technological advances from the Americans)
- caused key decisions about expanding or shutting down a plant to be made outside the country
- sometimes restricted the trade of Canadian branch plants with countries considered unacceptable by the United States (an example was Cuba)
- brought American-based unions into Canada
- posed a threat to Canada's independence.

Canadians who favoured American investment in Canada argued that it:

- · created thousands of jobs for Canadians
- provided money to help develop Canadian resources and industries when Canadians were unwilling to take the risks
- helped raise the standard of living in Canada to almost the same high level as that of the United States
- brought advanced technical knowledge and machinery into Canada
- contributed to the growth and welfare of Canada since American-owned companies paid taxes to the Canadian government
- increased business for Canadianowned companies
- profited Canadians who bought shares in American-owned businesses

What does this cartoon suggest about American influences on Canadians?



- provided Canadians with a greater variety and the highest quality of manufactured goods
- made for friendly relations between Canada and the United States.

The reaction against American investment was led by a group of Canadians known as economic nationalists.

Economic Nationalists

An **economic nationalist** is a person who believes his or her country should have as much control as possible over its own economy. In the early 1970s, economic nationalists in Canada formed groups to raise public awareness. They wanted people to know about what they believed were the dangers of foreign ownership.

The Waffle wing of the NDP published a manifesto at the party's convention in 1971. The author of the manifesto was University of Toronto professor Mel Watkins. Watkins had led one of the government task forces that called for controls over foreign investment in Canada. The Waffle Manifesto was very clear in identifying Canada's biggest problem. "The major threat to Canadian survival today," it said, "is American control of the Canadian economy."

Several prominent Canadians formed the **Committee for an Independent Canada (CIC)** in 1971. They included writer Peter Newman, entrepreneur Mel Hurtig, publisher Jack McClelland, and Liberal politician Claude Ryan. Soon the CIC had more than 10 000 members across the country. The organization sent Prime Minister Trudeau a petition with 170 000 signatures. The petition demanded limits to foreign ownership of Canadian businesses.

The lobbying efforts of the economic nationalists had some success. The federal Liberal government under Trudeau introduced policies to limit foreign investment in the Canadian economy. These initiatives decreased foreign ownership from 36 per cent in 1970 to 26 per cent by 1981.

Foreign Investment Review Agency 1973

One of the first steps the government took was to establish the **Foreign Investment Review Agency (FIRA)** in 1973. Any takeover of a Canadian company and any new foreign-owned business or branch plant had to be approved by FIRA. The

In March 1979, economic nationalist
Mel Hurtig announced in a speech that
non-Canadians controlled:

- 65% of all our combined manufacturing, mining, petroleum, and natural gas
- 98% of our rubber industry
- 82% of chemicals
- · 46% of pulp and paper
- 74% of the electrical apparatus industry
- 59% of transportation equipment
- 96% of the automobile and parts industry.



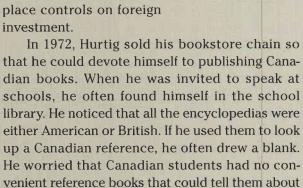


SPOTLIGHT ON ...

Mel Hurtig

Mel Hurtig has been described as a passionate Canadian nationalist. Hurtig owned a chain of three successful bookstores in Edmonton, when in 1970 he became alarmed at the extent of foreign ownership in the Canadian economy. That year, he became one of the founding members of the Council of Independent Canadians (CIC). The CIC helped persuade the federal government to place controls on foreign

their own country.



Hurtig's solution was to invest millions of dollars in producing the *The Canadian Encyclopedia*. The first three-volume edition appeared in 1985. In 1988, an expanded four-volume version was published, followed by the *The Junior Encyclopedia* of Canada in 1990. Hurtig sold his publishing



company to McClelland and Stewart in 1991.

McClelland and Stewart continued producing the encyclopedia. A CD-ROM version was published in 1995, and a new, unillustrated, one-volume edition came out in 1999.

Hurtig remained active in nationalistic causes. In 1985, he helped found a group called the Council of Canadians to oppose free trade with the US. In 1991, he wrote *The Betrayal of Canada*, a spirited attack

on free trade and foreign investment. The book turned out to be the best-selling title of the year in Canada. In 1999 he published *Pay the Rent or Feed the Kids*, a protest against child poverty in Canada. His autobiography, *At Twilight in the Country: Memoirs of a Canadian Nationalist*, appeared in 1996. The influential *Globe and Mail* columnist Michael Valpy called Mel Hurtig a "definitive Canadian hero."

- 1. Why do you think *Globe and Mail* columnist Michael Valpy called Mel Hurtig a "definitive Canadian hero?"
- 2. What criteria would you use to identify a "definitive Canadian hero?" Why?

FAST FORWARD

In the early 1980s, the Canadian economy went into a downturn. Foreign ownership was no longer an issue at the top of the national agenda. In tough economic times, the government did not want to talk about measures that would reduce investment and cost jobs. In 1984, under the Mulroney Conservative government, FIRA was replaced by a new agency called Investment Canada. It was designed to be more welcoming to foreign investment, but it would still review any takeovers of cultural industries. Controversy continues, however, over how effective the agency really is, and just how much foreign ownership should be allowed in Canada.

government emphasized that FIRA was not trying to block or discourage foreign investment. Its purpose was to ensure that foreign investment would have significant benefits for Canada.

FIRA was resented by Americans and some Canadian business leaders who believed in economic expansion. They were worried that FIRA might cut off the flow of much-needed money for resource industries. From May 1974 to August 1982, the agency examined approximately 3865 investment applications. It rejected only 293 of these. Some people called FIRA "a paper tiger" that took no real steps to prevent American investment in Canada.

The Energy Crisis

In the 1970s, Canada and many other nations of the world were hit by an energy crisis. In Canada, the crisis showed Canadians what effects foreign control of the economy could have. Much of the world's oil was produced by a number of Arab nations in the Persian Gulf region of the Middle East. In 1973, Israel defeated several Arab states in the Yom Kippur War. Arab oil-producing countries retaliated by organizing an embargo. They stopped shipping oil to Western countries that had supported Israel during the war.

World oil prices soared. In 1971, the price of oil had been very low, about \$3 a barrel. Within a year, the price had quadrupled. The Organization of Oil Exporting Countries (OPEC), which controlled most of the world oil resources, then increased the price of its oil again. For a while, there didn't seem to be any limit to what oil-producing countries could charge for a barrel of oil.

Even though Canada had abundant oil and gas resources, the Canadian petroleum industry was mostly foreign-owned. Large amounts of Canadian oil and gas were being shipped to the United States. As a result, Canadians faced the prospect of severe shortages.

In 1975, the Canadian government responded by establishing an oil company owned by the government—Petro-Canada. Petro-Canada profits, made from the sale of gasoline, would be pumped back into oil and gas exploration to meet the needs of future generations. The government also gradually decreased oil exports to the United States to 800 000 barrels a day in 1975, 460 000 barrels a day in 1976, and 260 000 barrels a day in 1977. Americans found it hard to adjust to this policy. They were accustomed to importing Canadian oil at low prices.

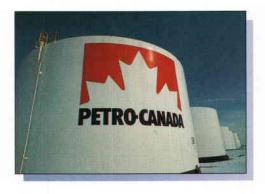
High prices for oil and gas also fed the problem of inflation in Canada. Prices had

been rising steadily since the late 1960s. By 1973, the cost of living had increased considerably. High oil prices were not the only cause of inflation, but they added fuel to the fire. Canadians demanded that the government do something. In 1975, the Trudeau government introduced wage and price controls. Family allowances and old-age pensions were also indexed to the cost of living. In other words, money paid out for these benefits would increase according to a set scale as the cost of living went up. Without indexing, people found the money they received from these benefits could buy less and less. The effects of wage and price controls on the economy, however, were limited.

The National Energy Program

In 1980, the federal government took further steps to ensure Canadian control of energy supplies. It introduced the **National Energy Program (NEP)**, and this made the American "elephant" very grumpy.

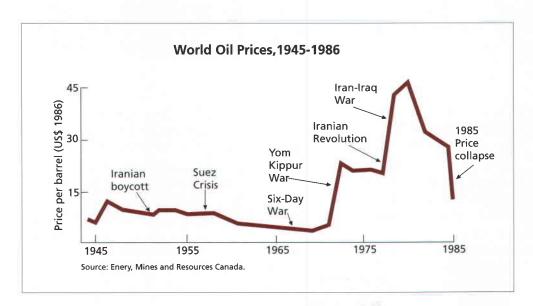
The goals of the National Energy Program were to establish 50 per cent Canadian ownership of the Canadian oil and



In 1975, the federal Liberal government established Petro-Canada to help ensure Canadian control over oil and gas resources. Later, shares were sold to private investors.

gas industry by 1990, to make Canada self-sufficient in energy by 1990, and to control oil prices so that Canadians were not at the mercy of fluctuating world oil prices. World oil prices had risen from \$3 a barrel in 1971 to \$40 a barrel in 1980!

American oil companies were incensed. In retaliation, they pulled many of their drilling rigs out of Canada. The drop in oil and gas exploration increased unemployment in the Canadian West. Oilproducing provinces in western Canada bitterly opposed the National Energy Program because it threatened their economic survival. They accused the federal government of exploiting the energy crisis to gain control of the oil industry.



World oil prices
soared in the 1970s.
By 1985, prices
dropped as Western
nations found new
countries (such as
Mexico, the Soviet
Union, and Canada) to
supply their needs,
increased use of other
energy sources (such
as coal and nuclear
power), and instituted
conservation
measures.



IMPACT ON SOCIETY

HOW DOES THE ELEPHANT AFFECT YOU?

How does the United States affect your daily life? Do you resent this influence, or do you welcome it? Make a profile of your tastes and attitudes by completing the following questionnaire.

Favourite movie of the year
Favourite actor (male)
Favourite actor (female)
Two favourite television programs
Favourite television news program
Most admired woman
Most admired man
Favourite musical group
Favourite female singer
Favourite male singer
Two favourite magazines

Favourite professional sports team

Favourite professional hockey team
Favourite female athlete
Favourite male athlete
Most admired political figure (living or dead)
TV channel watched most often
Radio station listened to most often
City in North America you would most like to visit
Place you spent your last vacation
Make of family car
Favourite breakfast cereal
Favourite brand of jeans

- 1. Go through your answers and sort out which are American, which are Canadian, and which pertain to other countries.
- 2. How "American" is your lifestyle? How do you feel about this? Why?
- 3. What answers reveal you to be Canadian? Why?
- 4. How "Americanized" do you think Canadian life is? Support your answer.
- 5. Do you think the results of your questionnaire will be different 10 years from now? Why or why not?
- 6. How does Canadian culture influence American life? Brainstorm as many examples as you can.

The federal government had decided that western oil fields were a national asset that should be used for the benefit of all Canadians. The government also froze the price of oil in Canada. Western provinces felt they were not getting the benefits of their own resources and resented federal government interference in their economies. Tensions between Ottawa and the western provinces ran high. Angry Westerners printed bumper stickers urging

their provincial governments to turn off the oil supply and let Easterners "freeze in the dark." The National Energy program fed the growing sense of alienation among western provinces in Canada. Eventually, these feelings led to the formation of regional parties, such as the Reform party in 1987.

The National Energy Program had some positive effects. It lessened Canada's reliance on foreign oil and on foreign ownership of Canadian oil resources. Within two years, Canada's control of its energy industry increased from 22 per cent to 33 per cent. People also became more conservation minded. Car manufacturers began to build small, more fuel-efficient cars. People tried to make their homes more energy-efficient by upgrading insulation.

To many Americans, the National Energy Program was the most anti-American initiative ever introduced by the Canadian government. FIRA and now NEP were seen as unfriendly actions to take against a neighbour and ally. However, an opinion poll in 1981 showed that 84 per cent of Canadians supported the goals of the NEP. As oil prices dropped in the 1980s and an economic slowdown increased interest in foreign investment, the NEP was dropped. Shares in Petro-Canada were also sold to private interests.

Although the furor over the energy crisis faded, it had important long-term results. The crisis demonstrated the interdependence of the world economy. Canadians realized that actions taken by countries on the other side of the world could have a major impact on their economy and their daily lives. The energy crisis also showed Canada and other industrialized nations how dependent they were on fossil fuels. It encouraged new research into alternative energy sources, such as solar power.

Cooperation on the Environment

In the 1970s, Canadians became more aware of another close connection with the United States—a shared environment. In the late 1960s and early 1970s, the problems of pollution were becoming evident. Researchers discovered high levels of acidity in lakes and other bodies of water. Fish and other life in these lakes were dying. People in both Canada and the United States became determined that some action was needed to control the pollution harming the natural environment. One of the more positive results of the environmental movement was an international agreement between Canada and the US to clean up the Great Lakes.

The Great Lakes Water Quality Agreement 1972

The border between Canada and the United States goes through the Great Lakes. For both countries, the Great Lakes are an important source of water and fish. They are also a major transportation corridor. Several large cities are situated on their shores on both sides of the border.

By the late 1960s, pollution had become a serious problem in these lakes. Lake Erie, the shallowest of the lakes and the one with the greatest concentration of industry, was in particularly bad shape. Its beaches were fouled with algae. Algae

FLASH BACK

The Great Lakes Water Quality Agreement was not the first time Canada and the US agreed to cooperate on matters involving their shared waterway. In 1909, they had signed the Boundary Waters Treaty. This treaty stated that both countries had the *right* to use the waters of the Great Lakes and the *obligation* not to pollute them. The treaty had also set up an International Joint Commission (IJC) to settle any disputes over use of the Great Lakes. Today the IJC reviews and evaluates all programs established under the Water Quality Agreement.

concentrations were so high that much of the lake could no longer support fish populations. In one notorious incident, the Cuyahoga River (which flows into Lake Erie near Cleveland) caught fire because of oil concentrations on its surface.

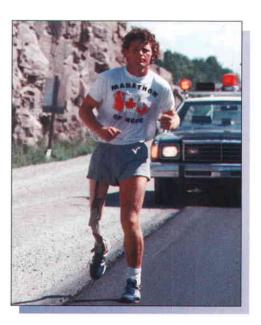
People were worried that the polluted waters could have harmful effects on their health and property. Since population and development rates around the lakes continued to rise, it was obvious the problems would only get worse.

In 1972, the governments of Canada and the US signed the Great Lakes Water Quality Agreement. The agreement aimed to reduce phosphorous emissions. Phosphorous poured into the lakes from laundry detergents in municipal waste water, from industrial wastes, and from farm runoff. Phosphorous enriches water, causing rapid growth of algae and plankton. This reduces oxygen levels in the water, killing fish and other life.

Working together, the governments met the reduction levels by:

· banning phosphates from household detergents

Terry Fox, on his Marathon of Hope run for cancer research in 1981.



- spending \$7.6 billion to build and upgrade municipal treatment plants
- persuading farmers to adopt better fertilizer management procedures.

The results were dramatic. In Lake Erie. phosphorous emissions from municipal sources dropped by almost 80 per cent. The beds of algae began to disappear, and water clarity improved. Today, the walleye (pickerel) fishery, which had been shut down in the 1970s, is the largest in North America.

The agreement was changed in 1978 to focus on toxic substances in the lakes. In 1987, it was amended again to focus on 43 specific problem areas. Many community groups also became involved in cleanup efforts.



Social Movements

The 1970s were years of social activism. People became more involved in trying to improve certain social conditions in the country and the world. Canadian citizens took action on several fronts. Members of the women's movement worked for goals such as pay equity and equal representation in the workplace. Activists from Aboriginal nations organized to stop mega-projects they feared would harm their ancestral lands. Environmental groups won increasing support.

Individuals also came to the forefront. One of them was Terry Fox. Terry Fox was a young student at Simon Fraser University when he was diagnosed with cancer. Surgeons amputated his right leg above the knee. Instead of giving up, Terry decided to raise money for cancer research. He had always been a good athlete. Now, he decided to run across Canada for cancer research.

Canadians across the country soon rallied behind Terry's cause. His enthusiasm and courage inspired widespread support. But shortly after his 22nd birthday, he had to abandon his run. He collapsed outside Thunder Bay, Ontario. The cancer had spread to his lungs. Terry returned to British Columbia, where he died in 1981. Each year, Canadians across the country organize "Marathons of Hope" in memory of Terry Fox. Millions of dollars have been raised for cancer research through these marathons. Terry Fox was an example of an individual who made a difference. He believed in a cause and took vigorous action to support it.

Another individual who came to the forefront was Lincoln Alexander. In 1968, Lincoln Alexander became the first Black Canadian elected to the House of Commons. It was one of several firsts in his career. In 1979, he was the first Black person to be appointed a Cabinet minister, serving as Minister of Labour. He always took an active interest in youth, education, and multicultural affairs. In 1985, he was honoured with the position of lieutenant-governor of Ontario, again a first for a Black Canadian. He held the post until 1991, and in 1996 was appointed chair of the Canadian Race Relations Foundation.

The Women's Movement

Women also raised their voices for change in the 1970s. In 1967, the federal Liberal government had established a **Royal Commission on the Status of Women in Canada (RCSW)**. For more than three years, commission members held meetings across the country gathering information for their report. Women had a chance to tell their stories and explain what changes they wanted to see in Canadian society.

Some women talked about the discrimination they faced in the workplace. Women were often still stereotyped as



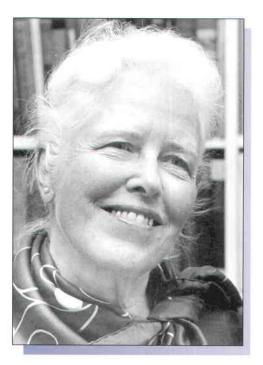
Lincoln Alexander became the first Black Cabinet minister in 1979 and from 1985-1991 served as lieutenant-governor of Ontario.

mothers and wives who should have no other interests or career goals. One woman, quoted in the report, described how liberating a career could be for a married woman:

[The married woman who works] is no longer regarded as the wife of Mr. X, but rather as Mrs. X, social worker, nurse, doctor, technician, or other specialist. When talking to her, one no longer feels obliged to begin by asking about her children, the subject that would previously have been assumed to be the centre of her life. One may speak to her of her profession since it is an open window, letting her look out on the world; one may also choose to talk with her about political, economic, or social topics (Brief No. 349).

Another woman expressed her frustration at being misunderstood and unfairly judged: "Manpower counsellors, most of whom are men, think that all women have the homemaking instinct. This is no more realistic than assuming all men are mechanically-minded" (Brief No. 279). Some testimonies pointed out the unequal pay women received compared to men.

Canadian women doctors noted that some women were discriminated against in colleges and universities: "For boys and girls coming out of Grade 13 into the first pre-medical year, there are three universiFlorence Bird, a well-known broadcast journalist, chaired the Royal Commission on the Status of Women in Canada and continued to work for women's causes.



ties that demand a 10 per cent higher academic qualification from the girls" (Brief No. 302). The commission also heard how some immigrant women, who could not speak or write English well (or at all), faced particular difficulties. Many were afraid to leave their homes to look for jobs. Some felt they would be laughed at or turned away. Those who did work were sometimes stuck in low-paying jobs.

In 1970, the commission released its full report. The report emphasized some key principles. One was that women should be free to choose whether or not to work outside the home. Another was that both parents and society shared responsibility for child care. Based on these principles, some of the commission's main recommendations were that:

- employers should not be permitted to discriminate on the basis of gender or marital status
- the government should fund better and more extensive daycare facilities for working mothers

- working women should be paid unemployment benefits for 18 weeks of maternity leave
- information on birth control should be made available to anyone who wants it
- housewives should be allowed to participate in the Canada Pension Plan
- two qualified women from each province should be appointed to the Canadian Senate as there are openings, and more women should continue to be appointed until they have more equal representation
- the federal government should appoint more women judges.

After the report was published, the federal government was slow to act. In 1972, activist Laura Sabia became determined that stronger action was needed. She established the **National Action Committee on the Status of Women (NAC)**. The NAC was a lobby group for women's rights. It also served as an umbrella organization for dozens of other women's groups across the country. Together, these groups began to press local, provincial, and federal governments to make the changes recommended in the commission's report.

Throughout the 1970s, women held marches, rallies, demonstrations, and seminars to raise awareness of women's issues. Women from various ethnocultural and racial groups often discovered that the NAC did not represent their particular concerns. They formed their own groups. In 1986, the National Organization of Immigrant Women of Canada became an umbrella organization for these groups.

Impact of the Royal Commission

By the end of the 1970s, it was clear that the efforts of women and the Royal Commission's report were having an effect. In 1977, the federal government passed the Canadian Human Rights Act. This act made some of the Royal Commission's recommendations law:

- the act outlawed discrimination on the basis of gender and marital status
- it required that women employed by the federal government receive equal pay for work of equal value.

The act also set up the Canadian Human Rights Commission. This body had the power to investigate and resolve complaints about racial and sexual discrimination.

Women made other gains at home and in the workplace. The federal government began to fund maternity leave through the Employment Insurance Program. Women now receive up to 25 weeks of paid leave through this program. The government also funds some daycare services through tax deductions and allowances.

Women's participation rates in the workforce have also risen since the Royal Commission's report. More importantly, the percentage of women in certain occupations has risen. Between 1982 and 1994, the percentage of women in managerial and administrative positions rose from 29 per cent to 43 per cent. The percentage of



women doctors and dentists went up from 18 per cent to 32 per cent.

In spite of these gains, women still face a significant wage gap. For the entire twentieth century, working women on average have made less than men. In 1967, Canadian women earned 58 per cent of the wages men earned in similar occupations. By 1997, that figure had improved to 72 per cent. That means women still made only 72 cents for every dollar a man made for the same job. The wage gap remains a concern for many women's groups. Women also continue to lobby for improved child care facilities, and for better laws to prevent violence against women and children.

Beginning in the 1980s, the NAC took steps to include more women of colour in the organization. In 1992, Sunera Thobani (left) was elected president. In 1996, she turned over the office to Joan Grant-Cummings (right).

International Women's Year

The United Nations proclaimed 1975 as International Women's Year. In Canada, events were held across the country. A number of special projects were also started to highlight women's issues and achievements. CBC Television produced a 17-part series called *Concerning Women*. Some of the programs included: "Kids' Attitudes;" "Alcan—Women in the Labour Force" (about the 57 women working at a BC smelter); "Women in Sport;" "The Single Woman;" and "Women and Mental Health."

Another initiative was the "Canadian Women of Note" book project. The first edition was published in 1981. It contained biographies of nearly 1000 well-known Canadian women who had made their mark since 1867.

In 1977, the United Nations passed a resolution calling on countries to set aside a "women's day" each year. The day would commemorate women's rights and international peace. Many countries have chosen March 8 as International Women's Day. It was on that day, both in 1857 and 1908, that strikes to protest women's dangerous working conditions and low pay were held in New York City. Since 1977, Canada has observed Women's Day with fairs, performances, discussions, workshops, and lectures.



Developing Skills: Writing a Research Essay

"We live in an information age." You've heard this said many times and it is very true. Our success, in and out of school, often depends on how well we can find information to answer questions, and how well we can present our point of view. In any occupation or career, you may be called upon to process information, make decisions, and present your ideas clearly. Planning and writing a research essay is excellent practice for the job and the life skills you will need in the future.

Here are the steps to follow:

Step 1: State Your Thesis

State your thesis clearly in a sentence. (Review the Developing Skills section in Chapter 15.) A thesis statement summarizes your point of view or argument.

Example: The War Measures Act should not have been invoked in 1970 because it violated the rights of all Canadian citizens.

Step 2: Prepare Your Outline

Prepare an outline for your essay like the one on this page. Use the outline to organize your ideas and the facts gathered in your research. Each paragraph should state a main idea to prove your thesis. It should also include facts or sub-points to support the main idea of the paragraph.

For example, the main point of paragraph 2 may be that the War Measures Act was intended to be used only in times of war or grave national crisis. There was no proof that there was a conspiracy to overthrow the Canadian government during the FLQ crisis. Your sub-points should provide specific examples and evidence to support this idea.

Step 3: Write Your Essay

Once you have organized the ideas and arranged the paragraphs in a logical sequence in the outline, you are ready to write your essay. Follow your outline. Concentrate on presenting your ideas

Outline Paragraph 1 Introduce the thesis Paragraph 2 First main point Sub-point Sub-point Sub-point Paragraph 3 Second main point Sub-point Sub-point Sub-point Paragraph 4 Third main point Sub-point Sub-point Sub-point Paragraph 5 Summarize and restate the thesis

clearly and persuasively. Make sure that the facts clearly support your thesis. Be sure to connect each main point to the thesis.

Step 4: Draw Conclusions

In the last paragraph, sum up all your main arguments. Be sure you show how all your arguments prove the thesis you stated in the introduction. As a final point, build on your thesis by restating it in different words.

Step 5: Evaluate Your Work

Allow time to set your essay aside for a few days. Then reread it. You will have a fresh perspective on your work.

Ask yourself these questions:

- · Is my thesis statement clear?
- Do my arguments in each paragraph clearly support my thesis?
- Do the facts I have presented clearly prove each argument?
- Is my essay persuasive?
- Can I make it better? Do I need to make revisions?

409

- Is the grammar correct?
- Have I clearly cited all my sources in a bibliography?

Use the answers to these questions as the basis for editing your essay. Make improvements and corrections.

Try It!

Write a mini research essay on one of the following topics or another topic of your choice.

- The War Measures Act
- Can the French-Canadian culture survive?

- Quebec Language Bill 101
- The Immigration Act of 1978
- The Canadian sporting event of the 1970s
- Why worry about the Americanization of Canadian culture?
- Economic nationalism: good or bad?
- · Equal work for equal pay issue
- Aboriginal activism in the 1970s
- An environmental issue



Aboriginal Activism

The issue of Aboriginal rights and land claims also gained increasing attention in the 1970s. In July 1977, at a ceremony marking the hundredth anniversary of the Blackfoot (Siksika) Treaty (Treaty No. 7), a chief told visiting Prince Charles, "Our tribes still suffer from poverty, unemployment, alcoholism, poor health, and lack of good opportunities for education. We have become a forgotten people. We don't want to wait another hundred years before we take our rightful place beside our fellow citizens of Canada."

In August 1973, the Minister of Indian and Northern Affairs had announced that the Canadian government would negotiate land titles with Aboriginal nations. For the Aboriginal nations, this was a first step toward recognition of their rights. One of the largest land deals in the 1970s centred around the Quebec government's huge hydroelectric project in the James Bay region. The project would flood the traditional lands of the Cree and Inuit. They insisted on receiving a share from the benefits of development based on their aboriginal right. No treaty had been signed in the area, and the Cree and Inuit claimed rights to the land as the first inhabitants.

For two years, the project was halted until the land claims were settled. In 1975, the James Bay Agreement was signed. In return for 13 844 km² of land (60 per cent of northern Quebec), the Cree and Inuit received:

- \$225 million to be paid over 25 years
- hunting, fishing, and trapping rights over 129 500 km² of undeveloped land
- ownership of 5500 km² of land.

This was the first major agreement signed between Aboriginal nations and the Canadian government since the last of the "numbered treaties" in the early twentieth century.

The Cree and Inuit had succeeded in negotiating a land claim with the Quebec and Canadian governments based on their aboriginal right. An important precedent had been set. Aboriginal nations felt that they could now force the federal or provincial governments to the bargaining table. This was especially true where treaties had never been signed or where previous treaties could be challenged. Also, since the Cree and Inuit had signed the agreement with both the federal and Quebec governments, they said it confirmed their right to remain part of Canada if Ouebec separated.



Netsurfer

For a review of how to cite the sources in your research essay, go to the web site of the Modern Language Association at www.english.uiuc.edu/cws/ wworkshop/mlamenu.htm.

FAST FORWARD

The first phase of the James Bay Project (James Bay I) was completed in 1984. It consisted of three hydroelectric dams on the La Grande river with the capacity to generate 10 300 megawatts of power. In 1989, the Quebec government announced the next phase of the project (James Bay II). This would be another series of dams, mainly on the Great Whale River. Together, the two phases of the project would dam nine rivers and flood an area roughly the size of Belgium. The Quebec government intended to sell much of the electricity generated by James Bay II to the states of Vermont and New York.

Cree Grand Chief Matthew Coon Come was alarmed at the harmful environmental effects James Bay I was already having on the area. He persuaded Vermont and New York to refuse power from James Bay II. New York cancelled a \$4-billion contract it had signed with Hydro Quebec. In 1995, the Quebec government announced that work on James Bay II would not go ahead.

In 1984, more than 20 000 migrating caribou were killed trying to cross a river whose waters had been swollen when one of the dams in the James Bay Project was opened.



The Mackenzie Valley Pipeline Inquiry

In 1968, American oil companies discovered huge reserves of oil and natural gas in Prudhoe Bay in northern Alaska. The Americans did not develop these reserves right away for several reasons. One reason was that there was no cheap and easy way to transport the oil and gas to markets in

the south. But once the energy crisis began in 1973, pressure for access to these resources grew.

Two different pipelines were proposed. The first was to run from Prudhoe Bay, across the northern Yukon, and down the Mackenzie Valley in the Northwest Territories. At 3860 km, this would be the longest pipeline in the world, and build-

In 1971, the Inuit Tapirisat (ITC) was founded to represent Inuit in negotiations with the federal government and the provinces. It also aimed to unite Inuit of the Northwest Territories, Labrador, Arctic Quebec, and Manitoba. The ITC was concerned about issues of aboriginal rights, the environmental impacts of oil exploration and northern tourism, and the development of an effective Inuit political leadership.

The first ITC president was Tagak Curley, who went on to become Minister of Energy, Mines, and Resources for the Northwest Territories. He was also later involved in the building of the Nunavut government legislature in Iqaluit. The first negotiations ITC launched with the government involved oil exploration in Hudson Bay, which had been going ahead without Inuit participation. In 1973, the ITC began researching Inuit land use and occupancy in the Northwest Territories and Labrador. This research was funded by the federal government. It was completed a few years later, and became the basis for negotiating Inuit land claims and rights to resources.

ing it would be the world's biggest construction project. The second, shorter route, was to start at the Mackenzie Delta and run down the Mackenzie Valley to Alberta.

For Canada, a pipeline would open the way to economic development in the North. Any natural gas reserves that were discovered in the Mackenzie Valley could be shipped to southern markets through the pipeline. Before approving the idea, the Canadian government formed a royal commission in 1974. The commission's task was to study the impact of the project on the northern environment and on the Aboriginal peoples who lived there. Thomas Berger, a judge on the British Columbia Supreme Court, was appointed to head the **Mackenzie Valley Pipeline Inquiry**.

For the better part of two years, Judge Berger travelled through the Yukon and the Mackenzie Valley meeting with concerned groups of Aboriginal peoples. His report, issued in 1977, contained two main recommendations:

- no pipeline should be built across the extremely sensitive land in the northern Yukon
- while a pipeline down the Mackenzie Valley was possible, there should be a 10-year moratorium or delay before

construction started. This would give Aboriginal nations time to clear up any land claims in the area.

The Trudeau government accepted both these proposals. In the end, because of changing economic conditions, the pipeline was never built. The Inquiry did more than simply stop construction of the pipeline, however. Through two years of meetings with Berger and his commissioners, Aboriginal nations in the area became more aware of their political rights and more vocal in demanding recognition of them.

Many Canadians thought the patriation of the Constitution and the passage of the Charter of Rights and Freedoms were the greatest success stories of the 1980s. But when the Charter was being drafted, there

The Berger commission held hearings both in major centres and in more remote areas throughout the Northwest Territories and Yukon.



was no mention of the rights of Aboriginal nations. Many Aboriginal people believed it was just another instance in a continuing story of neglect. Like women, whose rights had also been left out of the draft, Aboriginal people spoke out. Finally, agreement was reached. The rights of both Aboriginal nations and women were written into the new constitution. The revised Charter stated that "existing aboriginal and treaty rights" were "recognized and affirmed."



The Environmental Movement

The 1960s saw the beginning of the modern environmental movement in Canada. People, especially young people, became concerned about issues such as pollution, nuclear testing, and protecting wilderness areas from different forms of development.

By the 1970s, environmentalists had formed several well-organized activist groups. These groups wanted to raise public awareness of environmental issues. They also lobbied governments to pass laws that would protect the environment or certain species.

A group of University of Toronto students and their professors concerned about the over-use of pesticides formed **Pollution Probe** in 1969. This organization has used research, education, and advocacy to achieve its goals of improved air and water quality in Canada. Through *research*, Pollution Probe identifies environmental problems. Through *education*, it promotes public awareness and understanding of these problems. Through *advocacy*, it lobbies the different levels of government for practical solutions.

In its early days, Pollution Probe was active in persuading the federal government to restrict use of the pesticide DDT. This widely used chemical was very successful at killing the insects that destroyed crops. Unfortunately, it also killed fish when it washed into streams. Birds, such as cormorants and bald eagles, ate the fish. They then laid eggs with such thin shells that they were crushed during incubation. Populations of these birds plummeted, and they disappeared from large parts of their ranges. DDT also began to show up in the breast milk of human mothers. Eventually, the government banned the chemical completely.

Other causes that Pollution Probe has lobbied for include:

- banning phosphates from laundry detergents
- encouraging the use of curb-side recycling in dozens of Ontario communities
 (these efforts led eventually to the development of Ontario's Blue Box program)
- lobbying the federal government to limit the sulphur content in Canadian gasoline. This effort means that by 2005, Canadian gasoline will have the lowest rather than the highest sulphur content of any gasoline in the industrialized world.

For 25 years of environmental advocacy, Pollution Probe was awarded the 1994 Canadian Environmental Achievement Award.

Greenpeace is another Canadian organization that became famous for environmental activism. The organization was founded in Vancouver in 1970 to stop a nuclear test the United States was planning on an island off the coast of Alaska. Greenpeace members chartered a ship, took on board several journalists, and headed out to the island. Greenpeace did not succeed in stopping the test, but it was very successful in publicizing its protest. Two years later, the US government announced it would halt all testing on the island. Today, the island is a bird sanctuary.



Netsurfer
To find out more about Pollution
Probe, visit its web site at
www.pollutionprobe.org.

Greenpeace has developed a distinctive approach in its activism, which sometimes sparks controversy:

- it uses ships to reach remote "trouble spots."
- it places emphasis on publicizing its activities.
- it has been associated throughout its history with protests against atomic testing.

Some Greenpeace members took grave personal risks during their protests. For many years, Greenpeace sent one of its ships to protest atomic testing by France on the South Pacific atoll of Moruroa. In one incident, French sailors beat a Greenpeace boat captain so severely he was partially blinded. In another, French secret agents blew up the Greenpeace flagship *Rainbow Warrior* while it was docked in Auckland, New Zealand. A photographer on board was killed. The storm of protest that followed rocked the French government and forced the resignation of a cabinet minister.

Greenpeace has also organized campaigns to protect specific species. After its "Save the Whales" campaign, the International Whaling Commission in 1982 declared a moratorium on commercial whaling. Twelve years later, the IWC made the whole southern ocean a whale sanctuary.

In the mid-1970s, Greenpeace took a leading role in protesting against the killing of harp seal pups for their fur. The pups have a very thick, waterproof coat that is pure white. It is used for making boots, gloves, and coats. These articles



sold for high prices in Europe and North America. Hunters from Norway and Canada headed to the ice flows off Newfoundland to harvest seal pups each year.

Greenpeace protestors wrapped themselves around pups to save them from being clubbed. Sometimes they sprayed a dye on the pup's coat to ruin it for commercial purposes. Greenpeace ships tried to block the ships of seal hunters on their way to the ice floes.

In 1982, the European Parliament banned the sale of seal skins in member states. The market for seal pup fur collapsed, and the hunt off Newfoundland was suspended for many years. Greenpeace's actions, however, brought protest from Newfoundlanders and Inuit in Labrador who depended on the seal hunt as a vital source of income. The Canadian government has since allowed a limited harvest of harp seal pups every year, but the issue still sparks controversy.

Members of Greenpeace try to stop a factory ship from hauling in a whale.



Understand Facts and Concepts

1. Add these new terms to your Factfile.

economic nationalist

Committee for an Independent Canada (CIC)

Foreign Investment Review Agency (FIRA) National Energy Program (NEP)

Great Lakes Water Quality Agreement Royal Commission on the Status of Women National Action Committee on the Status of Women (NAC)

equal pay for work of equal value

wage gap

James Bay Agreement

Mackenzie Valley Pipeline Inquiry

moratorium

Pollution Probe

Greenpeace

- 2. a) Why did Americans complain that FIRA and NEP were unfriendly actions?
 - b) How effective were these programs?
- 3. a) Why was the chemical phosphorous the main target of the Great Lakes Water Quality Agreement of 1972? What were the main sources of phosphorous emissions into the lakes?
 - b) How did the US and Canadian governments act to restrict phosphorous emissions? What were the results?
- 4. State three successes women had in gaining equality with men in the 1970s. State three problems they still faced.
- 5. a) Define the term "Aboriginal right."
 - b) Outline some successes Aboriginal nations had in asserting their Aboriginal right. Also provide evidence of frustrations and obstacles they encountered.
- 6. a) List three issues that concerned environmentalists during the 1970s.
 - b) What success did they have in dealing with these issues?

Think and Communicate

- 7. Create a cartoon on an issue of your choice from this chapter. Consider the beaver and the elephant, the energy crisis, and different forms of social activism. Have a partner interpret your cartoon. Collect the cartoons created in your class into a "Cartoon Portfolio."
- 8. a) In 1967 Walter Gordon, a leading economic nationalist said, "... history has taught us that with economic control inevitably goes political control." What do you think Gordon meant?
 - b) Do you agree with his statement? Provide evidence to support your answer.

- 9. a) Outline the specific actions the federal government took to deal with foreign ownership in the Canadian economy in the 1970s.
 - b) Evaluate the effectiveness of each action by listing pros, cons, and results.
 - c) What other measures do you think the government could take to curb foreign ownership? Suggest at least two and support your choices.
- 10. a) Develop a mind map outlining the problems women still faced after 1980 in the struggle for equality with men. Under or beside each problem, suggest a number of solutions.
 - b) When your mind map is complete, decide on the three most important problems and the best solution for each one. Support your decisions.
- 11. Why do Aboriginal communities object to large development projects being constructed on their ancestral lands? List at least two reasons and illustrate them by reference to examples in this chapter.

Apply Your Knowledge

- 12. a) Some people have suggested that, as a way of strengthening the Canadian economy, individuals and governments should buy Canadian products whenever possible. How would a "Buy Canadian" policy benefit the country?
 - b) Examine your own buying pattern over the last year. When faced with the choice of a Canadian-made or foreign-made product, which did you buy?
 - c) Plan a "Buy Canadian" project to make your school aware of what you have discovered.
- 13. This chapter identified two environmental organizations and a number of the issues they have been involved with. Identify other environmental issues. Check newspapers, newsletters from environmental groups, and TV and radio reports for evidence of problems. In groups, choose one issue and prepare a short case study. Your case study should clearly identify the problem, suggest reasons for it, outline what has or has not been done, and suggest possible solutions.
- 14. Research the seal hunt issue. Imagine that the government has commissioned you to write a report that will present the sides of both environmentalists and seal hunters in as fair a fashion as possible. Write your report and draw your conclusions. Recommend that the government ban the taking of seal pups completely, that it allow the present limited harvest to continue, or that it substantially increase the number of pups hunted each year. Be sure to support your recommendation with at least three reasons. If possible, illustrate your report with photographs and statistical charts.

Get to the Source

15. Read the following excerpts from the report of the Mackenzie Valley Pipeline Inquiry.

To the Indian people, our land is really our life. Without our land we cannot—we could no longer exist as a people. If our land is destroyed, we too are destroyed. If your people ever take our land, you will be taking our life.

—Richard Nerysoo, Fort McPherson, NWT. In Northern Frontier, Northern Homeland, 1970.

It [development] does not leave any permanent jobs for people who make the North their home. The whole process does not leave very much for us to be proud of, and along with their equipment and technology, they also impose on the northern people their white culture and all its value systems.

—Louise Frost (Old Crow), Yukon Territory in Northern Frontier, Northern Homeland, 1970.

We look upon the North as our last frontier. It is natural for us to think of developing it, of subduing the land and extracting its resources to fuel Canada's industry and heat our homes. Our whole inclination is to think of expanding our industrial machine to the limit of our country's frontiers.... But the Native people say that the North is their homeland. They have lived there for thousands of years. They claim it is their land, and they believe they have a right to say what its future ought to be.

—Thomas Berger, Northern Frontier, Northern Homeland, 1970.

- a) What two different ways of viewing the North are presented in these quotations?
- b) Do you think these views can be reconciled? How?

Canada in the Global Arena



*

Recognizing China

Dateline: October 1970

Today, Canada has become one of the first Western nations in the world to recognize Communist China as the official representative of the Chinese people. Early next year we will exchange diplomats with the People's Republic of China. Canada has also promised to strongly support China's request to join the United Nations. Every year since 1950, the People's Republic of China has applied for membership to the United Nations. Every year, the United States has blocked the application. The US refuses to recognize a communist government as the official representative of the Chinese people. Presently, the United Nations recognizes the island nation of Taiwan as the Chinese representative. The United States has also been pressuring Canada and its other allies not to open diplomatic relations with Communist China.

The Trudeau government seems determined to take an independent role in foreign affairs. Many people feel that by recognizing the People's Republic of China, Canada is leading the Western world in a course of action that is long overdue. Canada is taking



Prime Minister Trudeau with Chinese leader Mao Zedong in 1973.

a strong stand and clearly showing its independence from the United States in foreign policy. Prime Minister Trudeau seems determined that Canada will play a distinctive role on the world stage.

Addendum: In 1971, the United Nations admitted the People's Republic of China and expelled Taiwan. In 1973, the United States officially recognized the People's Republic of China.

- 1. Why did the United States not want to recognize the People's Republic of China as the official representative of the Chinese people?
- 2. a) Why was Canada's decision to recognize Communist China an important one?
 - b) How did this decision show a major new direction in Canada's relations with Asian nations?

New Directions in Foreign Policy

Not long after his election in 1968, Pierre Trudeau asked for a "thorough and comprehensive review" of Canada's international relations. He believed that Canada's foreign policy needed to take into account changing conditions in the rest of the world. In 1970, the Liberal government set out the main aims of its new foreign policy:

- to establish diplomatic relations with the People's Republic of China
- to increase Canada's contacts with other countries of the Pacific Rim
- to increase the amount of money Canada spent on foreign aid and development

Trudeau's visit to China in 1973 established diplomatic relations and new trade deals. How was this visit significant for Canadian-American relations?



 to make the international community more aware of Canada's status as a bilingual nation.

Trudeau and his cabinet believed there were three main benefits to this new policy. It would announce to the world that Canada directed its own international affairs and was not a blind follower of the United States. It would help Canada to establish new trading partners, which would benefit the Canadian economy. Trudeau also believed it would strengthen Canada's national unity by supporting both bilingualism and a prosperous economy. He wanted his foreign policy and domestic policy to work hand-in-hand.

Canada's recognition of the People's Republic of China was more than just a declaration of independence from the US in foreign policy. It also opened the door to trade deals with the most populous country in the world. The People's Republic of China then contained one-quarter of the world's people.

In 1973, Trudeau visited China and met with Chinese Premier Zhou Enlai. The two leaders signed several trade treaties, including a three-year deal that would allow Canada to ship \$1 billion worth of wheat to China. Trudeau also met with Mao Zedong, the former leader of the country and head of the Communist party. Mao Zedong still had considerable influence in China. Under Mao and the com-

munist government, China had established very little trade with Western countries.

After Trudeau's visit and the relations he developed with the Chinese leaders, Canada became the first Western country to have extensive trade dealings with China. Canada was also the first Western nation to sign a "family unification" treaty with China. This treaty allowed many more Chinese immigrants into Canada so that they could be reunited with family members already there. In the 1980s and 1990s, China became a major source of immigrants to Canada.

In 1978, a new Chinese leader Deng Xioaping announced an "open door" economic policy. China began actively looking for trade and investment deals with the West. It opened several "special economic zones" to encourage joint-venture projects with Western companies. Since Canada had established friendly relations with China, Canadian companies were courted to participate in these projects. China (along with the Soviet Union) became Canada's largest market for wheat exports. By the 1990s, China and Hong Kong formed Canada's third-largest export market overall, after the United States and Japan.

Canada and the Pacific

Trudeau had specific reasons for wanting to increase Canada's contacts with Pacific Rim countries. Japan, Korea, and Malaysia were developing strong economies. They would be important trading partners. Also, most of Canada's exports to Pacific Rim countries came from the four Western provinces. These exports were mainly lumber from British Columbia and wheat from the Prairie Provinces. Any increase in trade with the Pacific Rim would benefit these provinces, and perhaps ease tensions between them and Ottawa. Tensions

Immigrant Population by Place of Birth, 1970 to 1995

Country	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990	1995
China	3 397	6 235	8 965	5 166	13 971	20 935
Great Britain	23 688	29 454	16 445	3 998	6 701	4 555
United States	20 859	16 729	8 098	5 614	4 995	4 317

Source: Statistics Canada, Report on the Demographic Situation in Canada 1990: Current Demographic Analysis, Dec. 1991, Cat. No. 91-209E.

were especially high during the energy crisis, and Western provinces were expressing an increasing sense of alienation within Confederation. The federal government's policies seemed to favour economic development in Central Canada, not in the West.

Trudeau also believed that Canada should take advantage of its ringside seat on the Pacific. Most of Canada's non-US trade had traditionally been across the Atlantic Ocean with Britain and Europe. It was time for Canada to "face both ways at once," Trudeau said. His government concentrated on directing more trade across the Pacific Ocean.

Foreign Aid and Development

Since the 1950s, Canada had been providing aid to foreign nations, particularly developing countries. The Trudeau government wanted to increase the amount of aid Canada sent to countries in Africa, Asia, and South America. Trudeau spoke passionately about opening a "North-South dialogue" between the wealthy industrialized nations of Europe and North America, and less developed countries of the Southern Hemisphere.

In the 25 years between 1970 and 1995, China overtook both Great Britain and the United States as a source country for immigrants to Canada. Why did this happen?



Netsurfer
Visit the web site of the
Canadian International
Development Agency (CIDA)
at: www.acdi-cida.gc.ca.

In the African country of Mali, CIDA sponsors a high school carpentry workshop through the Canadian Local Initiatives Fund.



Foreign Aid to Africa 1970-1997

	(millions	of dollars)		
Year	1970	1980	1991	1996/7
Total foreign aid	\$37.4	\$258.7	\$1 109.6	\$316
Country receiving the largest amount	Tunisia	Egypt	Ethiopia	Egypt
Amount received	\$7.2	\$27.8	\$70.4	\$161

Foreign Aid to Asia 1970-1997

(millions of dollars)					
Year	1970	1980	1991	1996/7	
Total foreign aid	\$140.9	\$234.6	\$822.8	\$239.7	
Country receiving the largest amount	India	Pakistan	Bangladesh	Bangladesh	
Amount received	\$88.6	\$67.1	\$190.4	\$98	

Foreign Aid to Central and South America and the Caribbean 1970-1997

(millions of dollars)				
Year	1970	1980	1991	1996/7
Total Foreign Aid	not available	\$66.8	\$348.5	\$149.15
Country receiving the largest amount	Jamaica	Jamaica	Jamaica	Haiti
Amount received	\$2.7	\$7.8	\$42.1	\$52

In 1968, the government established the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) to coordinate all aid from government sources, religious organizations, and charities. One of CIDA's missions was to provide emergency aid and disaster relief to stricken areas of the world. In regions hit by natural disasters such as floods and earthquakes, CIDA members would distribute food and arrange for emergency shelters.

Funds were also provided for long-term development strategies. The goal was to help countries improve food production, public health, education, shelter, and energy resources. CIDA sponsored medical workers, farmers, teachers, technicians, and other advisors to help people in developing countries set up projects. The projects focused on **sustainable development**. In other words, they aimed to develop a country's resources while making sure that the resources were still available for future generations. Reforestation is an example of sustainable development. Under CIDA, Canada's aid to Africa, Asia, and Latin America expanded considerably.

In the same year that CIDA was formed, former Prime Minister Lester Pearson was named to head a United Nations commission on international development. In the commission's report, called Partners in Development, Pearson recommended that each of the industrial nations of the world set aside 0.70 per cent of its gross national product (GNP) for foreign aid. In other words, for every \$100 of goods and services a country produced in a year, it would save 70 cents to spend on foreign aid. Canada committed to this figure in 1970, but had a hard time matching it. By 1985, Canada was spending about 0.50 per cent of its GNP on foreign aid. This put us somewhere in the middle range of major industrial countries contributing to foreign aid.



Developing Skills: Making Predictions Based on Evidence

Historians are always trying to predict what might happen in the future, based on what happened in the past. They make hypotheses, or educated guesses, based on what they know (facts or evidence from their research). Being able to make wise predictions is an important life skill. We use this skill when we need to take an action, forecast an outcome, or design something new to fit a need.

Imagine a group of students has just done research on the introduction of the War Measures Act in 1970. The students discovered that the act gave the police the power to arrest people just on the suspicion of belonging to the FLQ. Their teacher asks them to predict what might happen as a result of the federal government's decision to invoke the War Measures Act. She encourages them to hypothesize about the outcomes based on the information they have. These are the key steps they follow.

Step 1 Brainstorm Possible Outcomes

The students brainstorm a list of possible outcomes based on what they know about the War Measures Act and the situation in Quebec and Canada in 1970.

Examples:

- Quebeckers will resent having the Canadian army "occupy" their province.
- Quebeckers may feel that Ottawa has declared war on Quebec.
- Prime Minister Trudeau will be admired in English Canada for his strong stand, but he will be despised in French Canada.
- Some people will say the federal government over-reacted to the situation.
- Quebeckers will fear that the army could be sent in again if Quebec tries to separate in the future.
- Many Canadians will be relieved that the army is protecting people and property.
- The separatist movement in Quebec will be crushed.
- The resentment in Quebec could lead to more violence or terrorism in the future.

- The separatist movement will gain more support because Quebeckers will resent this interference by the federal government.
- Canadians in all parts of the country will resent losing their civil rights.

Step 2 Consider Each Prediction

The students then consider each prediction using the categories: True, Maybe True, and Not True.

Prediction	True	Maybe True	Not True
The separatist movement in Quebec will be crushed.			1

Step 3 Research Each Prediction

Next, the students research each prediction to confirm their hypotheses. As they read more about what happened, they highlight any information that confirms or negates their predictions.

Step 4 Reflect

Finally, the students reflect on what they discovered, using these questions.

- Did we find answers to our questions?
- What questions are still unanswered?
- How could we find answers to these questions?
- What happened that we did not predict?
- What new information did we learn?
- How accurate were our predictions?

Practise It!

In the last chapter, you wrote research essays on a number of topics. Form groups with students who researched the same topic. Together, make some predictions based on what you learned about your topic. Follow the steps outlined above. Write down your predictions and then do further research to confirm or negate your hypotheses. Periodically check back to reflect on the predictions you made.

Canada Post issued a
stamp in 1995 to
commemorate
La Francophonie's
25th anniversary.
What benefits does
Canada receive from
participating in
this international
organization?



Canadians have been divided on the subject of foreign aid. Some say that money should not be spent overseas when there are thousands of Canadians unemployed, homeless, living in poverty, or on welfare. Other Canadians believe that assisting developing countries gain self-sufficiency is a moral obligation of a wealthy nation like Canada. They also argue that there is an economic advantage. Canada develops its export markets by helping countries develop their economies.

La Francophonie

One of the Trudeau government's priorities was to make the world more aware of Canada's special nature as a bilingual country. In 1970, Canada joined an international organization called La Francophonie. La Francophonie is an association of the French-speaking countries of the world. Like the Commonwealth of Nations, it includes both developed and developing nations. Many of the member nations are former colonies of France. The goals of La Francophonie and the Commonwealth are similar. Members of La Francophonie are dedicated to helping each other through sustainable development projects. By 1998, La Francophonie had more than 40 member nations containing more than 120 million people.

While Canada is a member country of La Francophonie, the provinces of Quebec and New Brunswick are also recognized as "participating governments." This arrangement, in which a central government allows two of its provinces to participate as governments in their own right, is unique among the members of La Francophonie.

CIDA manages Canada's contributions to the developing countries of La Francophonie. Its six priority areas for this development are:

- · basic human needs
- the participation of women in the sustainable development of their societies
- infrastructure services (such as roads, bridges, and sewage systems)
- human rights
- · democracy and good government
- development of private business
- protection of the environment.

At La Francophonie's 1987 summit meeting in Quebec, CIDA contributed \$17 million to development projects in countries of French-speaking Africa. At the same time, the Canadian government forgave \$25 million in loans it had made to African countries.



Under Lester Pearson in the 1960s, Canada had unified its armed forces. Rather than a separate army, air force, and navy, there was one defence force under a centralized command. All troops wore the same kind of uniform. This arrangement was unique to Canada. None of our allies had a unified defence force.

Then in the 1970s, Prime Minister Trudeau made other changes in Canada's defence policy. He began to have second thoughts about Canada's role in the defence of Europe. The major nations of Europe had recovered from the effects of

World War II. At the same time, tensions in the Cold War had eased. The government was more concerned with Canada's troubled economy at home than with European defence.

Trudeau announced that Canada would withdraw 50 per cent of its ground troops from European bases. The defence budget for NATO would be frozen at \$1.8 billion until 1972, one of the lowest budgets of any NATO member. Canada's armed forces would concentrate on North American defence and the Arctic. Defence Minister Leo Cadieux announced the total strength of the armed forces would drop from 110 000 to 80 000 troops. Trudeau also declared that Canada's forces in NATO would no longer use nuclear weapons.

Leaders of Western European nations were furious over the NATO cutbacks. Trudeau realized that if he wanted to improve Canada's economic relations with these nations, he would have to re-establish our presence in NATO. The government did a total about-face and reconfirmed its NATO commitment. Defence budget spending increased between 1975 and 1977, and military equipment was updated. But Canada's contribution to NATO remains lower than many of our allies would like.

The Trudeau government also made changes to Canada's role in NORAD. In 1972, the two nuclear-armed Bomarc missile bases in Ontario and Quebec were dismantled. Some critics urged that Canada abandon NORAD altogether. This brought an outcry from the United States. Many Americans felt Canada was taking advantage of US defence while giving nothing in return. After 1975, the Canadian government reconfirmed its commitment to NORAD. But the government continued to rid Canada of nuclear arms. In 1984, Canada gave up its last nuclear weapons.



Canadian troops during a NATO training exercise in the 1970s.

Trudeau had another objective in mind with the armed forces. He believed that Canada's armed forces needed a greater representation of French-Canadian soldiers throughout the ranks, especially at the higher levels. Recruiting and promotion policies focused more on selecting qualified French Canadians. The Ministry of Defence also set up more intensive language training classes. Over the 1970s, the armed forces became more bilingual.

Promoting Peace

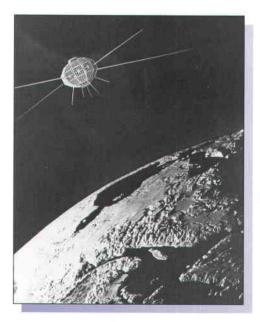
In the 1970s, Canada continued its commitment to peacekeeping throughout the world. Some of the missions Canadian peacekeepers participated in included the following.

 Canadian troops served in the Kashmir region of India and Pakistan in 1949 as part of a UN force. They continued their mission of monitoring peace until 1979, and were present during the 1971 revolt of East Pakistan against West Pakistani rule. This revolt resulted in the creation of an independent Bangladesh in 1974.

- In 1954, Canada had sent 133 peacekeeping observers to Indochina after the war between France and Viet Minh. The Canadian observers worked in Laos and Cambodia until 1969, and then in Vietnam until March 1973.
- The Yom Kippur War of 1973 brought Canadian peacekeeping forces to the Middle East. They were part of a United Nations Emergency Force helping to maintain peace between Egypt and Israel after the war. They supervised a buffer zone until 1979, when Egypt and Israel signed a peace treaty.

Other peace initiatives brought the Trudeau government into head-to-head conflict with the United States. Between 1954 and 1975, the Vietnam War was raging and the United States was heavily involved on the side of the South. But the war had dragged on for years at tremendous cost in lives and property in Vietnam. The Trudeau government angered many Americans

A model of Canada's
Alouette satellite
launched in 1962. It
was the beginning of
Canada's major
contribution to space
exploration and
research.



with a motion in Parliament in 1973 condemning the continuation of the war. Shortly afterward Canada agreed to participate in a control commission, which helped protect American soldiers withdrawing from the country. Just after they withdrew, South Vietnam fell to the North.

In 1976, Prime Minister Trudeau toured South America and visited the communist leader of Cuba, Fidel Castro. The United States strongly opposed this move. At a press conference in 1983, Trudeau condemned the US alliance with other "client states" in the region, such as Chile, El Salvador, and Guatemala. These states tolerated extreme human rights abuses.

In 1983, the Trudeau government became embroiled in an international incident that stirred up tensions from the Cold War. In August 1983, a Korean airliner entered Soviet airspace and was shot down by Soviet forces. The reaction of some Americans to this act was extreme and militant, and tension between the US and Soviet governments ran high. Since the US and the Soviet Union both had nuclear weapons, the prospect of a war was frightening. Trudeau's response was to propose a peace plan, which included banning nuclear and high-altitude weapons tests. Trudeau struggled to find support for his initiative, travelling to several Western capitals, Moscow, and Beijing. He failed, however, largely because the US government resented his independent stance.

Advances in Space Technology

In 1957, the Soviet Union launched the world's first satellite into space—*Sputnik*. A year later, the United States sent the *Explorer 1* satellite into orbit. The space race was on. In 1962, Canada became only the third nation in the world to have



* The Technological Edge

CANADARM

Over the past 25 years, pictures of space missions flashed to earth have often included a long, white robotic arm. On the side of this space arm was a Canadian flag. This is Canadarm. Canadarm has become a symbol of pride for many Canadians. It is an example of Canada's prime achievement in space research and technology.

The story of Canadarm began in 1975. In that year, Canada agreed to participate in the United States' space shuttle program. The space shuttle is a very large spacecraft that is launched like a rocket, but returns to earth and lands much like an airplane. The National Research Council (NRC) in Ottawa supervised the project to develop a "remote manipulator system" or robotic arm. The Canadarm would allow astronauts in the shuttle to perform key tasks outside the spacecraft. Canadarm is able to lift satellites out of the shuttle's cargo hold and set them in orbit. It is also used to retrieve and repair satellites, and to do maintenance work on the shuttle itself. Canadarm was built by Spar Aerospace in Toronto.

Designing and building this huge robotic device took six years. Canadarm is actually designed like a gigantic human arm. It has joints at the "shoulder," where it is attached to the space shuttle. It also has joints at the "elbow" and "wrist." Three "fingers" of heavy wire allow the arm to grasp or snag the different objects it manipulates. Canadarm's "eyes" are video cameras attached to its elbow and wrist, and its "brain" is a computer inside the shuttle. Astronauts control the Canadarm from inside the shuttle at a control panel.

In 1981, Canadarm went on its first test ride aboard the space shuttle Columbia. It performed even better than NRC scientists had expected. After two more test runs, Canadarm was declared fully operational. By 1998, it had flown more than 50



The Canadarm, as first seen through the cabin window of the space shuttle Columbia in November 1981.

missions. Canada has sold four Canadarms to NASA. In the future, the Space Station Remote Manipulator System (SSRMS), a new generation Canadarm, will play an important role in helping to build the first International Space Station.

- 1. In 1999, Spar Aerospace sold its robotics division to an American company, Macdonald Douglas. This means that Canadarm is no longer manufactured in Canada. State your opinion of this sale. What effects do you think it will have?
- 2. Many people saw Canadarm as an important symbol of Canada. Do you agree? Do you think Canadarm will continue to be an important Canadian symbol? Support your answer.

a satellite in orbit. It was *Alouette 1*, launched on a NASA rocket. *Alouette* was a scientific satellite designed to conduct experiments on the earth's atmosphere. Over the next nine years, Canada and NASA (the United States' space agency) cooperated to launch three more Canadian satellites. The satellites were designed and built at a research facility in Ottawa, which later became part of the Canadian Space Agency.

In 1969, space scientist John Chapman was asked to chair a government study on Canada's space program. Chapman had played a major role in the success of the Alouette satellites. The study's report signalled a major change in Canada's space research program. Instead of concentrating on satellites that performed scientific experiments, scientists would explore the commercial possibilities of satellites, especially in the field of telecommunications. Telecommunications is the electronic transfer of information over long distances. Telephones, radio, and television broadcasting are all examples of telecommunications.

In 1969, the government formed **Telesat Canada**. Telesat's mission—to set up Canada's own satellite communications system—was a good example of the way Canada's geography can shape its national policies. Canada is a country with vast distances and a widely scattered population. It also has extremes of climate and widely different landforms, varying from mountains to prairies to arctic tundra. Land-based communications, such as telephone and microwave systems, cannot always reach Canada's remoter regions. If they can reach these areas, the costs are often very high.

A communications satellite, on the other hand, can service a vast area from a

single location in space. A satellite is not what communications specialists call distance sensitive. Satellites are also ideal to help monitor and predict weather conditions—another advantage in Canada, where violent storms can do a great deal of damage to life and property.

By 1973, Canada had become the first country in the world to have its own satellite communications system. The system was based on the *Anik* series of communications satellites. The first *Anik* satellites were built in the US, but they used parts and research supplied by Canadian firms such as Northern Telecom and Spar Aerospace. Later *Anik* satellites were built entirely in Canada. All of these satellites carried channels for radio, television, and telephones.

Telesat also developed an experimental line of *Hermes* satellites in cooperation with NASA and the European Space Research Association. The *Hermes* satellite launched in 1976 was even more powerful than the *Anik* models. *Hermes* was the forerunner of direct-to-home satellite television broadcasting. These satellites also led to other new applications, such as search and rescue of ships and planes in distress and remote sensing technology. This technology allowed scientists to monitor Canada's natural resources and draw highly detailed and accurate topographical maps.

After *Hermes*, Canada's aerospace industry became deeply involved with research in robotics. The greatest achievement in this field was the Canadarm. Over the 1970s and early 1980s, Canada established its reputation as a world leader in space technology. By 1997, the Canadian space industry employed more than 5300 people and had annual revenues of more than \$1.25 billion.



Netsurfer Visit the web site of the Canadian Space Agency at: www.space.gc.ca.





IMPACT ON SOCIETY

THE INUIT BROADCASTING CORPORATION

After Canada launched its first *Hermes* satellite into space in 1976, the federal government set up a number of experimental groups. Their task was to find out if *Hermes* satellites could be used in **interactive broadcasting**. In other words, could the satellites both send and receive different kinds of broadcasting signals—telephone and radio signals, for example?

One government group established the Inukshuk project in northern Quebec. (Inukshuk is an Inuit word for the stone figures used as landmarks to guide travellers in the North.) The Inukshuk project set up the first radio broadcasting system among Canada's Inuit. The project involved eight communities in northern Quebec. People called in questions and comments to the radio station in one of the communities. The station broadcast the calls to other residents. These people then phoned in their replies, which went out over the radio to the original caller. All the signals for the telephones and the radio system were relayed by satellite. Since the announcers were Inuit and spoke Inuktitut, the programs soon became very popular with local communities.

After the launch of the *Anik B* satellite in 1978, the government funded similar experiments for television broadcasting systems in northern Quebec and the Northwest Territories. The success of all these projects proved that satellite communications systems were ideal for Canada's North, where small communities are separated by great distances. Messages that once took days to travel between these communities by snowmobile or airplane now arrived almost instantly.



An announcer for the Inuit Broadcasting Corporation.

But Inukshuk was still only an experiment. The government had only provided enough funds for a certain amount of time. Inuit leaders began to press Ottawa to fund a permanent broadcasting system in the North.

In 1981, the government established the Inuit Broadcasting Corporation (IBC). The IBC broadcast its first television programs in 1982 on CBC North. From the beginning, the broadcasts included programs on health, education, and Inuit culture. With more than five hours of programs in Inuktitut every week, IBC has helped reinforce the sense of a shared and vital culture among the Inuit. Also, since in traditional Inuit society most important decisions are reached through consensus and after long discussion, the IBC has played an important role in political developments in the North. It helped develop awareness of issues surrounding self-government, and it helped relay Inuit concerns to Ottawa. The IBC was an important part of the negotiations that led to the new territory of Nunavut.

- 1. How did interactive broadcasting benefit northern Inuit communities?
- 2. Do further research on the *Hermes* experimental satellites. Present a short report including diagrams or models if possible.

The Rise and Fall of Nuclear Energy

Canada has also been at the forefront of developments in nuclear power. In 1945 at Chalk River, Ontario, the world's second nuclear reactor went into operation. It was a cooperative project started during World War II between Canada, the US, and Great Britain to produce plutonium for nuclear weapons. After the war, the Chalk River reactor became part of a research facility focusing on peaceful uses of nuclear power. In the 1950s, Canada first began to use nuclear reactors to generate electricity.

In a nuclear power plant, atomic fission (or splitting of the atom) produces intense heat. This heat is used to turn water into steam. Pressure from the steam turns a turbine that drives a generator, and this produces electricity. Canada has a special advantage in developing nuclear power—it mines more high-grade uranium than any other country in the world. Uranium is the radioactive mineral used in nuclear fission.

Why was there this focus on nuclear power? As a northern nation, Canada has long, cold winters with short days. Canadians need more electrical power for heat and light than people in many other countries need. Vast distances between major cities also mean that Canadians use a great deal of fuel for transportation. Canada's economy is based to a large extent on extracting and processing its natural resources. This too consumes great amounts of energy. As Canada's economy grew and developed after World War II, the government was determined to develop new sources of energy.

In 1952, the Canadian government created a Crown corporation called Atomic Energy Canada Ltd. (AECL). Scientists at AECL worked closely with Ontario Hydro to design and build a reliable reactor. In 1967, they produced the first **CANDU reactor**. Many experts believed it was the finest reactor ever designed. CANDU stood for "Canada Deuterium Uranium." This name meant that the reactor used natural uranium as its fuel, and heavy water (containing deuterium, a heavy hydrogen molecule) as the coolant that kept the reactor from overheating. CANDU's greatest advantage over other reactors was that it could be refueled while still operating. No power generation was lost due to reactor "down time." The first CANDU reactor began operating in Ontario in 1967.

CANDU reactors were built not only for Canada. They were also sold to other countries, especially developing countries that desperately needed a cheap, clean, and reliable source of electrical power. Canada has sold one CANDU reactor each to Pakistan, Argentina, and Romania; two to India; and four to South Korea.

In the 1970s, the oil crisis sparked even more interest in nuclear power. A large number of nuclear power plants were built in the 1970s, most of them in Ontario. When it was cheap, oil was the logical choice to fuel electrical generators. But as prices skyrocketed, governments searched desperately for a less expensive energy source. Nuclear power seemed like an ideal candidate. Once the plants were built, they were relatively inexpensive to keep up. One nuclear fuel "bundle" weighing 22 kg could supply as much energy as 2000 barrels of oil. A typical CANDU reactor contained hundreds of these fuel bundles.

The largest nuclear facility in the world opened at Pickering, Ontario, in 1972. By 1980, reactors were supplying 38 per cent of Ontario's electrical needs. At the height of its use in Ontario, nuclear power supplied about 60 per cent of the province's electricity. Across Canada, approximately

17 per cent of the country's electricity came from nuclear generating stations.

But using nuclear energy to produce electricity has always been extremely controversial. Anti-nuclear activists argue that:

- atomic fission is dangerous. Human error or structural flaws in a plant can cause a meltdown of the reactor's core. The resulting explosion could kill thousands of people. It could also contaminate air and water supplies, killing thousands more people over the following years.
- there is no safe way to dispose of spent fuel bundles, which remain radioactive for hundreds of years. Fuel bundles are stored for a time in huge tanks of water that act as a coolant for the heat generated by the radioactivity. Once the radioactivity has dissipated somewhat, the bundles are often shipped for underground storage. Even transporting spent fuel from one site to another presents a threat to public safety.
- nuclear power plants discharge radioactive water into surrounding bodies of water and also contaminate ground water supplies. There have been documented cases where radioactive water escaped into the drinking-water supplies of surrounding communities.
- unscrupulous governments might use the uranium and heavy water in a CANDU reactor to manufacture nuclear weapons. Although no such use has ever been proven, India did explode its first nuclear device in 1974, some time after obtaining two CANDU reactors. The Canadian government immediately cut off exports of nuclear technology to India, a ban that is still in effect today.

On the other hand, people who support nuclear power say that:

• every form of electrical generation leads to some sort of pollution. Nuclear



power plants do not contribute to global warming because they do not send greenhouse gases into the atmosphere as coal- and oil-fired plants do. Nuclear advocates estimate that CANDU reactors in Canada have prevented more than 830 million tonnes of greenhouse gases and 80 million tonnes of coal ash from entering the earth's atmosphere.

- nuclear power is cheaper than power from coal and oil sources. In 1994, Ontario Hydro estimated that nuclear power was 35 per cent cheaper than power generated from oil or coal.
- since atomic fission produces much more energy with fewer resources, nuclear power plants use up less of the earth's natural resources.

Throughout most of the 1970s, people seemed about evenly divided over the pros and cons of nuclear power stations. But an event in 1979 shocked the world and sent many people into the antinuclear camp. On 28 March 1979, an accident occurred at the Three Mile Island nuclear plant in the United States. The plant was located on the Susquehanna River in Pennsylvania. A reactor overheated and started leaking radioactive water.

Authorities feared for a time that there might be a core meltdown and an explo-

The nuclear power plant at Pickering, Ontario, opened in 1972. Why has nuclear power sparked debate in Canada?

FAST FORWARD

In 1997, a report by independent investigators rated safety and maintenance procedures at Ontario Hydro's 19 nuclear reactors as only "minimally acceptable." The report forced the president of Ontario Hydro to resign and led to the shutting down of seven reactors. Because it would cost billions of dollars to bring the closed plants up to acceptable operating standards, analysts doubt they will ever be re-opened. In an outraged editorial, the Ottawa Citizen compared Ontario Hydro's management to the bungling cartoon character Homer Simpson. One environmental activist said the shutting down of the seven plants marked "the beginning of the end for nuclear power in Canada."

sion. In the end, enough coolant water was pumped back into the reactor to avoid an explosion, but in the meantime thousands of people in nearby communities were evacuated. The world held its breath while technicians struggled to contain the damage. For the first time, people became aware of the serious threat a melt-down in a nuclear power plant could pose. Three Mile Island put an end to the building boom in nuclear power plants.

The Coming of Computers

The first working computers were developed during World War II, originally by the German army and then by the military in Great Britain and the United States. These early computers were actually calculating machines used to decipher secret codes.

After the war, the US military continued research into applying computer technology to communications systems. During the 1960s, scientists searched for a way of linking computers across the country with telecommunications systems. The military hoped to build a communications system that could withstand a nuclear attack. If one part of the system was knocked out by a bomb, the other parts should be able to bypass it and continue communicating. This research eventually led to the system we know today as the Internet.

The earliest computers were large and cumbersome machines. Writers David Godfrey and Douglas Parkhill described them in the book *Gutenberg Two:*

Early computers cost millions of dollars, consumed many kilowatts of power, required large rooms with special cooling equipment to house them, and were notoriously unreliable. Hardly the sort of beast one would invite into one's home

In 1973, the first **microcomputer** appeared. It was made possible by the invention of the microchip—a tiny wafer of semiconducting material used to make integrated circuits. The computer revolution was underway, but it was not until the late 1980s that microcomputers became widespread and began to appear in shops and businesses across the country.

Canadian Applications

During the 1960s and 1970s, most of the computer hardware used in Canada was developed in the US. Canada's contributions to computer technology were mainly in the development of software, or operating programs, especially in the field of computer animation.

In 1974, the National Film Board of Canada produced the first computer-animated film in the world to use character animation. *Hunger/La Faim* was nominated

for an Academy Award and won the prestigious *Prix du jury* at the Cannes Film Festival in France. In making *Hunger/La Faim*, NFB animators used a process developed at the National Research Council's software engineering laboratory. This process allowed the animators to combine hand-drawn images with computerized geometric shapes. After the success of *Hunger/La Faim*, research groups on computer graphics were set up at several Canadian universities. Eventually, most Canadian universities began to offer programs in computer graphics.

Canadian graduates of these programs have gone on to work in the fields of software design and computer animation. Software designers at the Canadian company Corel designed the CorelDraw program that is used around the world. Canadian animator Bill Reaves was one of the principal animators for the Hollywood film *Toy Story*.

During the 1970s, Canada's Department of Communications developed the

Telidon system. This was a combination of television, computer, and telephone systems. It allowed subscribers to find information in centralized databanks. Telidon never became as widely accepted as the federal government hoped it would, but there were some successful applications. One was called Grassroots, which allowed farmers in Manitoba to exchange information on weather, new seed varieties, fertilizing techniques, and other agricultural matters. The Telidon system never caught on with the general public, however. Once personal computers became more common in the 1980s and 1990s, people were able to gain wider access to information through the Internet than through Telidon.

There were other astounding technological developments during the 1970s. Hand-held calculators came into widespread use. The early 1980s saw the introduction of automatic teller machines in Canada. All of these advances signalled that the Information Age was here.



Canadian animator
Bill Reaves was one of
the driving forces
behind the successful
Hollywood film
Toy Story.

Activities

Understand Facts and Concepts

1. Add these new terms to your Factfile.

Pacific Rim
Canadian International Development
Agency (CIDA)
sustainable development
La Francophonie
Alouette 1
telecommunications

Telesat Canada
interactive broadcasting
Inukshuk project
Canadarm
CANDU reactor
microcomputer
Telidon system

- 2. What were some of the economic results of Canada's friendly relations with China?
- 3. What did Prime Minister Trudeau mean when he called for a "North-South dialogue"?
- 4. a) Why did the federal government attempt to reduce Canada's involvement in NATO and NORAD?
 - b) Why did this policy change?
- 5. Explain in your own words why satellite communications systems are particularly suitable for use in Canada's North.
- 6. What is the main advantage of the CANDU over other types of nuclear reactors?

Think and Communicate

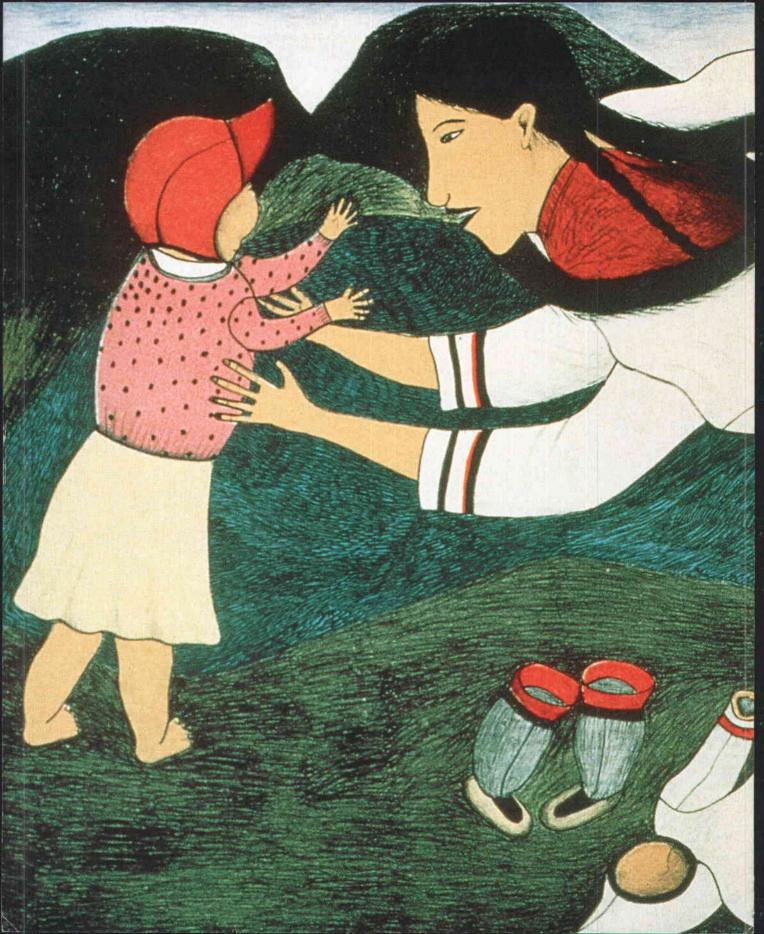
- a) Create a mind map outlining the major initiatives in the Trudeau government's foreign policy.
 - b) Trudeau's domestic policy during the 1970s was to improve the economy and to better the relations between English and French Canada. In what ways did his foreign policy support these goals? Indicate these connections on your mind map.
 - c) In what ways did Trudeau attempt to assert Canada's independence from the United States in foreign policy? Devise a way to show this information on your mind map.
- 8. Debate one of the following statements:
 - a) "Foreign aid should benefit Canada as well as the country receiving the aid."
 - b) "Nuclear power plants in Canada should be shut down."
- 9. Using this textbook and other sources, create a timeline outlining Canada's involvement in developing space technology, especially in the field of satellite communications. Illustrate your timeline.
- 10. Using a map of Canada, indicate the characteristics that make Canada a country especially well suited to satellite telecommunications, rather than land-based communications systems.

- 11. Investigate an aspect of computer technology during the 1970s. Consider the following topics.
 - a) Design and uses of the earliest computers.
 - b) Computer animation—what is it and how is it done?
 - c) The microcomputer—when was it invented and how did it revolutionize the use of computers?

Write a research report on a topic of your choice.

Apply Your Knowledge

- 12. a) Visit the web site of the Canadian Space Agency (www.space.gc.ca). Explore the different windows of information and take notes on what you discover. Then design a field trip through the site for your classmates. Outline the trip step-by-step. Focus on windows you think your classmates will find most interesting. Include 10 questions for students to answer as they go through the trip.
 - b) Follow up by designing an evaluation sheet to ask your classmates what they thought of your field trip.
- 13. Visit the web site of the Canadian International Development Agency (www.acdicida.gc.ca). Investigate the youth internship program. Design a brochure on the program that answers a number of key questions. Examples could include: What is the Youth Internship Program? What are its goals?, etc.
- 14. Scan a computer news database for recent articles on nuclear power in Canada. Locate five articles and read them carefully. Write a short summary of the articles and include an analysis giving your viewpoint on the issues.





TOWARD THE NEW MILLENNIUM

1983-2000

his unit is different from every other in one very important way. The final two decades of the twentieth century cover the period when you were born and began participating in the history of Canada. Events in this unit have touched you directly and have affected your idea of what it means to be Canadian.

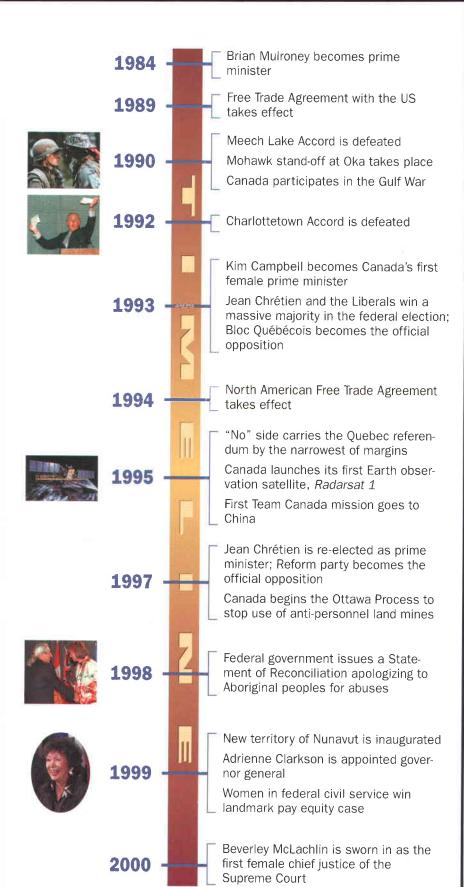
If you had to draw up a list of important events in your lifetime, what would it include? For many people, the night of 30 October 1995 would be at the top of the list. On that historic night, Quebec came within a hair's breadth of separating from the rest of Canada.

Another date at the top of many lists would be 1 April 1999. On that date, Nunavut officially became a new territory of Canada. It is the first province or territory in Canada whose government is controlled by Aboriginal peoples.

There are many other highlights you could list—developments in the women's movement, in Canada's world role, in Canadian-American relations, in technology, in Canada's growing ethnocultural diversity, and in culture. There is also one unique challenge you face that no generation before you has faced in quite the same way—globalization. This unit focuses on some of the major changes this trend has brought to the lives of Canadians.

- 1. The artwork is a print called My Daughter's First Steps by Inuit artist Napatchie Pootoogook from Cape Dorset. Which pieces of clothing are traditional? Which are modern? What does this tell you about how life is changing for Inuit in the North?
- 2. Locate Cape Dorset on a map. What territory is it in? What do you know about this territory?
- 3. What image of the future does this artwork present?





Strands & Topics

Communities: Local. National, and Global



Canadian Identity

- Canada becomes one of the most ethnoculturally and racially diverse countries in the world
- new territory of Nunavut is inaugurated in 1999
- · Canadian writers, singers, and filmmakers collect a multitude of international awards



External Forces Shaping Canada's Policies

- political and economic crises in different parts of the world affect immigration patterns to Canada
- globalization leads to Free Trade Agreement, North American Free Trade Agreement, and Canadian participation in other global organizations
- · conflicts arise with US over splitrun magazines and "salmon wars"



French-English Relations

- Meech Lake and Charlottetown accords are defeated
- · Quebec's language law is revised after Supreme Court finds parts of it unconstitutional
- 1995 Quebec referendum narrowly defeats separation
- · francophone communities outside Quebec assert their rights



War, Peace, and Security

- · Canada remains actively involved in peacekeeping and peacemaking missions around the world
- · Canada participates in the Gulf War in 1990
- · Louise Arbour serves as chief prosecutor for the UN Tribunal on War Crimes

Change and Continuity



Population Patterns

· majority of immigrants to Canada come from Asia, the Caribbean, Latin America, and Africa



Impact of Science and Technology

- · advances in computers and other communications technology change the Canadian workplace
- Canada participates in the space program and in the building of the International Space Station
- the Internet has a major impact on business and everyday life



Canada's International Status and Foreign Policy

- · Canada leads the world-wide movement to ban land mines
- · Canada continues its active involvement in human rights

Citizenship and Heritage



Social and Political Movements

- conflicts at Oka and Ipperwash bring international attention to the rights of Aboriginal nations
- · major land claims and self-government settlements are made with Aboriginal nations
- · women achieve a higher profile in politics and business, but still deal with the "glass ceiling"
- labour issues centre around job losses due to technological changes and global competition



Contributions of Individuals

· Adrienne Clarkson, Louise Arbour, and Beverley McLachlin gain prominent leadership positions

- · David See-Chai Lam becomes the first Asian Canadian to be appointed a lieutenant governor
- Craig Kielburger leads a crusade for children's rights
- · writers and artists such as Michael Ondaatie, Susan Aglukark, and Deborah Cox gain international recognition
- Brian Mulroney, Kim Campbell, Jean Chrétien, Lucien Bouchard, Paul Okalik, and Phil Fontaine are among key political leaders

Social, Economic, and **Political Structures**



The Economy

- Free Trade Agreement and NAFTA are signed
- possibility of a common currency between Canada and the United States is raised



The Changing Role of Government

- · rise of Reform party and Bloc Ouébécois
- · Liberals register the first balanced budget in almost 30 years
- · Inuit gain a form of self-government in new territory of Nunavut
- · government takes action against US split-run magazines

Methods of Historical Inquiry



Skill Development

- keeping up with the news
- · sampling public opinion
- analyzing a current issue

Activities

• pp. 462-465, 493-496, 521-523

Expectations

At the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- describe the crises in relations between Quebec and the rest of Canada
- assess the achievements of francophone communities outside Ouebec
- · account for immigration patterns over the 1980s and 1990s and compare them to past patterns
- · analyze the effects of technological advances on the Canadian workplace
- · evaluate the trends in Canadian-American relations
- appreciate the achievements of Aboriginal nations in the political, legal, and artistic spheres
- · assess the advances in the women's movement
- analyze the importance of globalization to Canada's economy and culture
- evaluate Canada's role in international peacekeeping, peacemaking, and advocating human rights
- appreciate the contributions of various ethnocultural and racial groups and individuals
- evaluate the role of government in domestic and international affairs
- · apply analytical skills to reading a newspaper
- · analyze public opinion polls
- evaluate a current issue



A Nation of Diversity and Change

Mountie Image Sold to Disney

In June 1995, newspapers across the country announced the surprising news. The Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP) had sold the Mountie image to the Disney Corporation. The five-year licensing deal gave the American company the exclusive right to reproduce the Mountie image on items such as toys, T-shirts, coffee mugs, dolls, and watches.



What does this cartoon suggest about the sale of the Mountie image?

Why had Canada's national police force chosen an American company to market its image? Would the Mountie image now be associated with cartoon characters such as Mickey Mouse, Donald Duck, and Goofy? Wouldn't this marketing deal between Disney and the RCMP cheapen the image of the Mounties? Many Canadians feared that the deal might make one of Canada's national symbols an object of ridicule.

Speakers for the Mounties replied quickly. They pointed out that the RCMP had considered several Canadian companies, but in

the end "Disney seemed the most competent." They said the Mounties were tired of the inaccurate ways they were portrayed by souvenir and toy companies. Only a large, multinational corporation such as Disney could guarantee that the Mountie image would be reproduced accurately. The RCMP also stated that it would take the approximately \$5 million in

licensing fees it received every year and invest the money in Block Parent and drug prevention programs. Spin-off deals would create more jobs for Canadians and pump more money into the economy.

These arguments did not convince everyone. Canadian Senator David Tkachuk replied he could not believe it was impossible for a Canadian firm to handle the job. "We market coins from the Canadian mint, we market stamps throughout the world," he said. "We have a fairly dignified way of marketing these products."

Other critics pointed out that Disney did not seem to have a strong commitment to Canada. The company's Canadian branch employed only 45 people. Disney representatives could not explain exactly how the new deal would create more jobs in Canada.

In the end, the real issue seemed to be Disney's track record as a successful global marketer. "Disney markets throughout the world," said one Mountie speaker. "And we hope that the Mounted Police image will also market across the whole world." From the RCMP's point of view, it did not matter whether Disney was Canadian or American. What mattered was that people in China, India, Russia, and the rest of the world recognized Disney and Disney characters. All over the world, **globalization** of the economy was breaking down national borders. Was it also creating a common culture?

- 1. Should we be Canadians first and citizens of the world second? Or should it be the other way around?
- 2. Globalization refers to the idea that the world is becoming one large community with interconnected needs and services. How is the globalization of the economy affecting the way Canadians view themselves?

Addendum: In 1999, the RCMP announced it would not extend its contract with the Disney Corporation.



Over the last 20 years of the twentieth century, both external and internal forces were changing Canada's identity. The global economy is an example of an external or outside force. Inside the country, French-English relations, federal-provincial relations, and immigration were other factors creating changes in Canada's identity.

When the constitution was brought home from Britain in 1982, Quebec was the only province that refused to sign. This created a problem that governments spent the rest of the century trying to fix. By the mid-1980s, new leaders had come into the political arena to tackle the issue.

In 1984, Pierre Trudeau decided to resign as Prime Minister and return to private life in Montreal. At the Liberal party convention, delegates elected John Turner as leader. The Conservative party had also changed its leader. Joe Clark had been replaced in a bitterly contested leadership convention by Brian Mulroney, a bilingual Quebecker from Baie-Comeau. When an election was called in 1984, the stage was set for Canadians to choose between two new leaders.

With 95 seats, Quebec held the key to an election victory for the Conservatives.

With a native-born Quebecker as its leader, it looked as if the Conservative party might stand a chance of winning in Quebec. On election day, the Conservatives won an overwhelming majority with 211 seats, the largest electoral victory in Canadian history. The Liberals, led by Turner, won only 40 seats. The New Democratic Party, led by Ed Broadbent, won 30 seats.

The following year in Quebec, René Lévesque resigned as leader of the Parti Québécois. In the December 1985 Quebec election, new PQ leader Pierre-Marc Johnson was defeated by Robert Bourassa and the Liberals. With new leaders in Canada and Quebec, the issue of Quebec's place in Confederation seemed open for discussion once again.

Meech Lake Accord, 1987

When he came to power in 1984, Brian Mulroney vowed to end the bitterness

Elijah Harper holds an eagle feather for spiritual strength as he blocks passage of the Meech Lake Accord in the Manitoba Legislature. Why did Aboriginal nations oppose the accord?



between Quebec and the rest of Canada over the constitution. He gathered the premiers to a meeting at Meech Lake, Quebec, in 1987. At this meeting, Mulroney and the premiers hammered out a new constitutional agreement that became known as the **Meech Lake Accord**.

The major changes proposed by the accord were:

- Quebec was to be recognized as a "distinct society" within Canada
- provinces would be allowed to opt out of any new federal programs and still receive money from Ottawa for their own matching programs
- provinces would be given a say in the appointment of Supreme Court justices and senators; three of the nine Supreme Court judges would be from Quebec
- future changes to federal institutions, such as the Senate or the Supreme Court, or the creation of new provinces would require agreement by Ottawa and all 10 provinces
- Quebec would control its own immigration policy.

The federal government and each province had to approve the Meech Lake Accord within three years, by 23 June 1990, or the agreement was dead.

When the details of the Meech Lake Accord were made public, former prime minister Trudeau broke his political silence to denounce the agreement. Trudeau argued that the proposal gave far too much power to the provinces, particularly Quebec. He warned that it would result in a powerless federal government. Many Canadians agreed. Women's groups had also not been consulted about the provisions in the accord. The National Action Committee on the Status of Women (NAC) was concerned that the revisions might overrule the equality rights they had gained in the Charter of Rights and Freedoms.

The provinces of Manitoba, New Brunswick, and Newfoundland and Labrador had elected new governments after 1987. Their premiers had not been at the Meech Lake talks, and they wanted further changes made to the accord. As time was running out, Manitoba and Newfoundland and Labrador had still not ratified the agreement.

The accord had ignored the rights of Aboriginal nations, and they too were determined that it would not pass without including them. Manitoba was one of the provinces that had not yet ratified the agreement. At the last moment, Elijah Harper, an Aboriginal member of the Manitoba Legislature, prevented the legislature from debating and voting on the issue. His objection was that the accord did not provide special status for Aboriginal nations as it did for Quebec. On 23 June 1990, time ran out for the Meech Lake Accord.

The Charlottetown Accord, 1992

Many Quebeckers interpreted the defeat of the Meech Lake Accord as a rejection of Quebec by the rest of Canada. Quebec polls in 1991 showed that two-thirds of Quebeckers now favoured independence. Premier Bourassa decided to put forward Quebec's proposals for constitutional change. If the rest of Canada did not accept Quebec's proposals, or come up with acceptable counter-proposals, a referendum on independence would be held in October 1992.

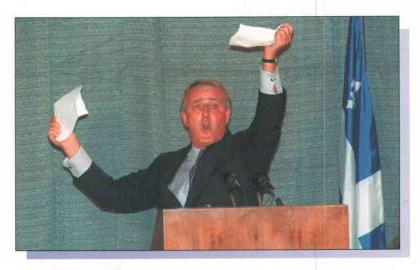
Prime Minister Mulroney believed that the federal government and the provinces had to come up with a proposal acceptable to Quebec. This time the government would open the debate to the public. Many people felt they had not been consulted about changes to their constitution during the Meech Lake discussions. A Citizen's Forum on Canada's

Future was formed. It organized hearings throughout the country to listen to the suggestions and complaints of thousands of Canadians. Mulroney appointed former Prime Minister Joe Clark to head a committee on constitutional reform.

It was not an easy task. Clark had to turn around anti-Quebec feelings among many English-speaking Canadians in the rest of the country. At the same time, he had to offer Quebec a deal more appealing than independence. Said Clark, "There is nothing automatic about this country. Canada was not here at the beginning of the last century. There is no logic that says it must be here at the beginning of the next. We have to work to keep it. We always have."

After months of intense work, the premiers of all the provinces except Quebec, Aboriginal leaders, and the prime minister met at Charlottetown. The site was symbolic because the Fathers of Confederation had met there in 1864. This time another group of politicians agreed to the **Charlottetown Accord** on 28 August 1992. It included proposals for:

 Quebec. Quebec would be recognized as a distinct society with its own language, culture, and civil law tradition. Prime Minister
Mulroney ripping a
sheet of paper
during a speech in
Sherbrooke, Quebec.
He was suggesting
that a "No" vote in the
Charlottetown Accord
referendum would
tear apart Quebec
society.



Language Law in Quebec

In its original form, Bill 101 allowed for French only on outdoor commercial signs in Quebec. On this sign, English words have been erased to conform to the language law.



In 1977, Quebec had passed Bill 101, the "Charter of the French Language." Since that time, there have been a number of challenges to the bill and it has been revised several times. Quebec's Charter of the French Language has stirred debate for more than 20 years, and it looks as if it will continue to do so for years to come. The following timeline outlines some of the highlights in the history of this controversial law.

- 1974 The province of Quebec recognizes French as its only official language.
- 1977 Quebec passes Bill 101, also known as the "Charter of the French Language." The bill makes education in the French language compulsory for all immigrants, including those from other provinces in Canada. It also makes the use of a language other than French on public commercial (store and business) signs illegal.
- 1982 Quebec Association of Protestant School Boards sues the Quebec government on the grounds that Bill 101 violates the Charter of Rights and Freedoms. The Charter guarantees that children can be educated either in English or French wherever numbers warrant.
- Supreme Court of Canada declares unconstitutional the section of Bill 101 that limits English-language instruction in Quebec schools. As a result, children who have been taught in English elementary schools elsewhere in Canada can receive English-language instruction in Quebec.
- 1988 Supreme Court of Canada declares unconstitutional the section of Bill 101 that says outdoor commercial signs have to be in French only. Quebec nationalists are outraged by what they see as the court's interference in Quebec's internal affairs.

Bourassa's Liberals pass Bill 178. This new bill allows bilingual signs inside stores, but still bans the use of any language other than French on outdoor signs. To do this legally, Bourassa has to invoke the "notwithstanding clause" in the Charter of Rights and Freedoms. This clause allows provinces to override a Supreme Court ruling based on certain sections in the Charter.

Many English-speaking Canadians are upset by Bourassa's use of the notwithstanding clause. The later defeat of the Meech Lake Accord in 1990 is blamed partly on Bourassa's action.

Gordon McIntyre, a funeral parlour operator in Huntington, Quebec, files a complaint on Bill 178 with the UN Human Rights Committee.

- 1993 The UN condemns Bill 178, stating that it violates accepted global standards of freedom of expression. The UN finding also says that the right to protect the French language is not threatened by non-French signs. Quebec suffers international embarrassment as a result of the UN ruling.
 - Quebec passes Bill 86, which allows outdoor business signs to be in French and another language, as long as the French lettering is twice as large.
- Quebec Superior Court rules that the section of Bill 86 that says French must be "markedly predominant" on outdoor commercial signs is unconstitutional. The court states the Quebec government has failed to prove that the predominance of French on commercial signs is still necessary to preserve the language.

Quebec immediately files an appeal of the ruling. Until the appeal is heard and decided, the provision remains in force.

- *Senate reform*. The Senate would be elected, not appointed.
- Division of federal and provincial powers. The provinces would be given power over such areas as tourism, housing, culture, and forestry.
- Social and economic issues. There were commitments to preserve such programs as universal health care and workers' rights.
- Minorities. English-speaking communities in Quebec and French-speaking communities in the rest of Canada would be protected.
- Aboriginal rights. The right to self-government for Aboriginal nations was accepted and recognized as one of the three orders of government along with Ottawa and the provinces.

Mulroney announced that all of Canada would have a chance to vote on the accord in a national referendum. All three major political parties supported the Charlottetown Accord. Opposition came from a new western political party called the Reform party, the National Action Committee on the Status of Women, the Parti Québécois, and former prime minister Trudeau. In the weeks before the referendum, there was growing opposition in the country to the accord. Almost every section came under attack. Many people felt that the proposal gave too much to Quebec and too little to other regions of Canada.

On 26 October 1992, Canadians voted in a national referendum on the Charlottetown proposal. Across the nation, 54.4 per cent of voters said "No" and 44.6 per cent said "Yes."

The collapse of the Charlottetown Accord was a blow not just to Quebec, but to Aboriginal nations as well. For years they had been negotiating with the government over the right to govern themselves. The proposal for Aboriginal self-government in the Charlottetown Accord had been a step

forward. Since the collapse of the accord, Aboriginal nations have continued to work for self-government.

Political Changes

Shortly after the collapse of the Charlotte-town Accord, Brian Mulroney resigned as leader of the federal Conservative party. He was succeeded by Kim Campbell, the first female prime minister in Canada's history. Four months after taking office, Kim Campbell called a federal election. When the votes were counted in June 1993, the Conservative party lost 148 seats—dropping from more than 150 seats in the House of Commons to just two. It was a stunning defeat. The Liberal party, with 177 seats, won a large majority government.

The new prime minister was Jean Chrétien, a bilingual Quebecker. After the election, Chrétien stated that the time had come to leave constitutional quarrels on the back burner. Many Canadians seemed to agree with him. In a *Maclean's/Decima* poll, two-thirds said that unemployment and the weak economy were the two most important problems facing the nation.

But the question of Quebec's future in Canada would not go away. Neither would the tensions between Quebec, the federal government, and the rest of Canada. In the 1993 election, two new regional parties had come to the forefront—the Bloc Québécois and the Reform party.

New Political Parties

Before the 1993 election, nine members of the **Bloc Québécois** were already sitting in the House of Commons. The Bloc Québécois was formed in 1991 after the failure of the Meech Lake Accord. Lucien Bouchard, then a federal Conservative MP and cabinet minister, was bitterly disillusioned by Meech Lake's failure. He became convinced that negotiating with

O Arts Talk



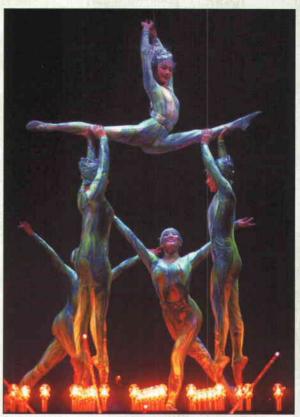
Cirque du Soleil

Over the twentieth century, Québécois writers, artists, musicians, and performers have gained increasing recognition both in Canada and internationally. They have sparked interest in Québécois culture, and many have been recognized as innovators in their fields. Quebec singer Céline Dion has won several Juno and Grammy awards, both for her francophone albums and her hit songs in English. She is recognized around the world as an outstanding vocalist.

Another amazing success story is that of Cirque du Soleil, a circus troupe founded in 1983 by a group of street performers from Montreal. The troupe was originally called *Club des Talons Hauts*, or High Heels Club, because most of the members were stilt walkers. Fire-eaters and jugglers also joined the troupe, which then included 12 performers.

The troupe's first organized venture was a street festival. Their goal was not just to entertain passersby and make money. They also wanted to provide a way for street performers to come together and exchange tips on techniques and routines. The first festival was so successful that the performers began to dream of finding an indoor home. They wanted a place where they could practise without distractions and perform to a seated audience. By this time, the troupe had already begun to grow. Soon 65 performers and technicians went under the "big top" in Montreal, and Cirque du Soleil was born.

The Cirque advertised itself as a "circus without animals." It won attention for its vividly coloured costumes and the skill of its jugglers, acrobats, clowns, and aerialists. Shows by the Cirque du Soleil combined circus with theatre arts—in other words, performances by the individual artists were always presented as part of a story. Since the stories were acted as mime, without spoken dialogue, people of all ages and from



Chinese acrobats dance on light bulbs in Cirque du Soleil's 1999 show Dralion.

many different countries could understand them immediately.

The Cirque began to tour, first in Canada and then the United States. Rave reviews in major newspapers led to sold-out shows. Next came a successful European tour, and suddenly the Cirque was an international phenomenon. To meet the worldwide demand for its shows, the Cirque had to form several troupes of performers. It also scripted different shows that could be presented simultaneously at a number of sites.

By 1999, only 15 years after its first performance, the Cirque du Soleil had become a multinational corporation. Its headquarters in Montreal employs 500 full-time staff. Regional headquarters

into power. The new premier was Jacques Parizeau, a fiery leader and committed separatist. Parizeau vowed to hold another referendum on Quebec independence within a year. The date for the referendum was set for 30 October 1995. The referendum question asked whether Quebec should become "sovereign" after first making a formal offer to the government of Canada for "a new economic and political partnership." A "Yes" vote would support separatism; a "No" vote would say that Quebec should remain part of Canada.

Support for independence was high at the time of Parizeau's election. But over the summer of 1995, it began to weaken. By the time the referendum campaign was officially launched in October, the "No" side led in the opinion polls by about 10 percentage points. Parizeau found it difficult to explain exactly what impact independence would have on Quebec economically. In interviews with the press, he made remarks that alienated some voters.

On Thanksgiving weekend, the Parti Québécois recruited Lucien Bouchard to spearhead the final drive to voting day.

Bouchard was immensely popular in Quebec. In his speeches, he urged Quebeckers to take pride in their language and culture. He warned that the rest of Canada would never agree to grant Quebec its distinct status in law. Separatist rallies began to attract huge crowds.

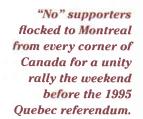
As the referendum date approached, "No" supporters were dismayed to find that the separatists had regained ground. Polls indicated the vote would be too close to predict. Rallies were organized across the country to show support for Canadian unity. On 27 October, three days before the vote was held, more than 100 000 Canadians travelled to Montreal for a massive unity rally at the Place du Canada.

On voting day, the tension and suspense could be felt not just in Quebec, but across the country. In its coverage of the referendum, the CBC ran a bar graph that showed support see-sawing between the "Yes" and "No" sides all night long. Finally, the result was posted. The "No" side had won by the thinnest of margins, with 50.6 per cent of the vote. The "Yes" side had taken 49.4 per cent of the vote.

Later Developments

The day after the referendum, Jacques Parizeau resigned as Quebec premier and leader of the Parti Québécois. In a televised speech the night before, he had blamed the "Yes" side's defeat on "money and the ethnic vote." Many Canadians, including many of Parizeau's supporters, were disturbed by this discriminatory statement. After debating whether he should stay in federal politics or take over the PQ in Quebec, Lucien Bouchard became leader of the PQ and premier of Quebec in 1996. Gilles Duceppe later took over leadership of the Bloc Québécois.

The referendum had pointed to a basic split in Quebec society. About 60 per cent of French-speaking voters had voted





are also located in Singapore, Amsterdam, and Las Vegas. In 1999, the Cirque staged seven different shows on four continents. In the US, it has permanent performance sites at Disney World, Las Vegas, and Biloxi, Mississippi. The production of show soundtracks, videos, and souvenirs has added to the Cirque's success. In 1999, it released its first commercial film, *Alegria*.

From the beginning, the Cirque has also been involved in social programs, especially sponsoring workshops for street kids. It cooperates with non-governmental organizations such as Jeunesse du Monde and Oxfam-Canada in a program called Cirque du Monde. Through this program, Cirque performers and technicians teach troubled young people circus arts. The Cirque also donates about one per cent of its annual receipts to social outreach programs.

- 1. Many Québécois artists have won acclaim in Europe and the United States, yet they sometimes receive less recognition in Canada. Why? Do you think this situation is changing? Explain.
- 2. Can you name other prominent Québécois artists and performers? Find out more about them. Create a collage with descriptive captions.

the rest of Canada over Quebec's status was a waste of time. Quebeckers, he decided, had no choice but to work by themselves for complete independence from Canada. Eight other Quebec MPs joined Bouchard in forming the new party. The Bloc Québécois had one major aim: the sovereignty of Quebec as a separate nation.

In the 1993 election, the Bloc captured 54 seats and became the official opposition. It was the first time a party dedicated to Quebec sovereignty had such a large representation in the House of Commons. The Bloc was determined to make Quebec's demands heard across the country. But another regional party had also gained a large number of seats. The **Reform party** won 52 seats in the 1993 election, just two fewer than the Bloc.

Reform party support came almost entirely from the western provinces, especially Alberta and British Columbia. The party had been formed in 1987 in Winnipeg to represent concerns of western voters. It called for less federal interference in provincial affairs, and it strongly opposed granting any special status to Quebec.

Reform leader Preston Manning stated, "People are saying yes to a fair language policy, but no to forced bilingualism."

The Reform party also called for an elected Senate and for major cuts to social welfare and cultural support programs. It had backed Brian Mulroney's push for free trade with the United States in 1989, but had played an important role in opposing both the Meech Lake and Charlottetown accords.

The Quebec Referendum of 1995

The rejection of the Charlottetown Accord left many French Canadians feeling that the rest of Canada was indifferent to their wishes—and perhaps even hostile to French-Canadian culture. On the other hand, some English-speaking Canadians felt that Quebec was demanding too many special rights. The strength of the Bloc Québécois within Quebec, and the strength of the Reform party in the West, suggested that public opinion across Canada was deeply divided.

In the 1994 Quebec provincial election, the Parti Québécois stormed back "Yes." More than 90 per cent of Englishspeakers and people with first languages other than English or French had voted "No." Would this difference of opinion continue to threaten Canadian unity and the stability of Quebec society?

Many Canadians were alarmed at how close Quebec had come to separating from Canada. Afterward, there was a feeling that Jean Chrétien's Liberal government had failed to show leadership in the weeks leading up to the referendum. This feeling was especially strong among the premiers of the nine provinces outside Quebec. In September 1997, these nine premiers met in Calgary They tried to find a way of convincing the people of Quebec to reject separatism and remain part of Canada. The result was the **Calgary Declaration**, a summary of principles on Canadian unity.

The premiers stated that Quebec, because of its language, culture, and tradition of civil law, had a "unique character." But they also insisted that all provinces had "equality of status." They stopped short of granting Quebec "distinct status" within the Canadian Confederation.

Although he was invited, Lucien Bouchard refused to attend the Calgary meeting. He angrily rejected the Calgary Declaration as meaningless. The only way of recognizing Quebec's "uniqueness," he said, would be through separation.

Bouchard said he had every intention of calling for another sovereignty referendum, but only "under winning conditions." Jean Chrétien argued that Quebec could never separate from Canada on a **unilateral** basis. That is, Quebec could not decide to separate on its own. It had to negotiate separation with the federal government and the other provinces. The Chrétien government petitioned the Supreme Court of Canada for a judgement. On 20 August 1998, the Supreme Court ruled that:



- Quebec did not have the right to separate unilaterally from Canada
- to achieve independence, Quebec would have to negotiate first with the federal government, the nine other provinces, the Aboriginal nations living in Quebec, and other minorities living there
- negotiations could begin only after a referendum in which a "clear majority" voted "Yes" to a "clear question."

Both sides hailed the decision. Prime Minister Chrétien said the court had made it clear that separation was a much more complicated process than the PQ had led its supporters to believe. "This means the time for playing games is over," he said. "The court has confirmed just how difficult it would be to break up one of the most successful countries in the world."

Premier Bouchard, on the other hand, claimed the Supreme Court had simply reinforced Quebec's position on separatism. "The next time men and women will be able to vote 'Yes' without worrying about a smooth transition to sovereignty," he said. Leaders of Aboriginal nations also expressed satisfaction with the decision. Phil Fontaine, chief of the Assembly of First Nations, said, "It is clear that the secession [separation] of Quebec cannot be effected without the consent of our people."

Who came out the "winner" in the Supreme Court decision? It was not really clear. But after the dust had settled,

Jacques Parizeau reacted angrily to his party's narrow defeat in the 1995 Quebec referendum. Parizeau resigned as premier and head of the Parti Québécois the next day. What symbol can you see in this photo?



Developing Skills: Keeping Up With the News

Most Canadians keep up with the news by watching it on television. Today, many Canadians are also tapping into news on the Internet. With modern telecommunications, breaking news stories can be flashed on the screen as they are happening. We find out about news events from almost anywhere in the world almost instantaneously. Live coverage of events on television and the Internet makes viewers feel they are there as the events are unfolding. But news reports on television often place a strict time limitation on each story. The journalist has only about 60 seconds to get the main idea across to viewers. Usually, that is not enough time to examine the issue in depth. Television news is essentially a front-page headline service.

To be informed, you have to get the whole story behind the headlines. For this you need a complete account of the news from a well-edited, well-written newspaper or newsmagazine. Regular reading of a newspaper will keep you more informed about current international, national, and local events.

There are a few things you should know about the layout of a newspaper. The size of the headline will tell you how important the story is. For example, when a major earthquake hit Turkey in 1999, newspapers ran headlines in very large, bold type. The less important the story, the smaller is the headline.

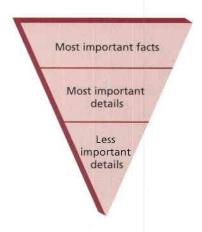
The main story of the day is usually the one with the largest headline. Newspaper editors also attract your attention by placing the lead story above the fold in the paper. This way, when you walk by a newspaper box or stand, you see the top story.

A well-written news story provides the reader with four basic ingredients: information, background, analysis, and interpretation.

Information

First, you need basic facts. A news story should report the facts plus give you a balanced, unbiased view. It should present all sides of an issue, not just one side.

Reporters write a story in a particular way. They use what is called the inverted pyramid style. They start with the most important information first to grab the reader's attention. The most important details come next, followed by the less important details. Knowing how a news story is written will help you evaluate the facts the next time you read a newspaper.



Background

A well-reported story tells the reader *who, what, where, when,* and *how.* The best news stories will also tell you *why* something happened, and the *why* is often the key ingredient. Skillful reporters explain their background information. Their explanation should help you to understand the story and evaluate it for yourself.

Analysis

Leading newspapers also offer analysis of the news. Analysis goes beyond the reporting of the facts. Newspapers hire columnists, usually experts in a particular field, to explain and offer insights into various current events.

Interpretation

In a reliable newspaper, interpretation is usually found not in the news story itself, but on the edi-

torial page. Interpretation goes beyond the news and analysis. It tells you not just what has happened or will probably happen, but what *should* happen. Editorials offer personal opinions. They express a viewpoint that is designed to stir your thinking about an issue. Do you agree or disagree? What facts are used to support the opinion? Read about the issue, wrestle with different approaches, and come to your own conclusion about the impact of the issue.

Practise It!

1. Choose an important television news story. Then examine how the same story is reported in a

national newspaper. Continue to follow the story closely on TV and in print. Write a short paragraph or use an organizer to compare the treatment of the story on television and in the newspaper. If you can, follow the same story on an Internet news service and include Internet coverage in your comparison.

2. As a class project, create your own four-page newspaper. Decide on the current events or issues to be covered. Then assign tasks to individuals. Include an editor, reporters, photographers, columnists, cartoonists, and a designer/layout artist. Work together to plan and publish your newspaper.

constitutional experts pointed out one disturbing fact. This was the first time a Western, democratic country had formally confirmed the right of a province (or other part of a nation) to separate. It had also outlined a way for the province to achieve separation. As Canada entered the new millennium, it was clear the unity debate would continue for some time.

Francophone Communities Outside Quebec

René Lévesque was once asked about the one million French-speaking Canadians who live outside Quebec. He referred to them as "dead ducks." Why did Lévesque use such a negative description? To many people, these seemed to be vibrant francophone communities. Lévesque believed these communities were threatened by two insurmountable forces: assimilation and repressive language policies.

Assimilation is what happens when one cultural community is absorbed by another. Lévesque thought the dominant English-speaking culture in other provinces would slowly but surely swallow

up the francophone communities. Each generation, more francophone children would pick up English at school, through television, and at the movies. By the time they became adults, they would no longer think of French as their first language. Some of them would marry English-speakers, and their children would grow up not knowing French at all.

Some experts in linguistics, the study of languages, agreed with Lévesque. They pointed to studies that said assimilation rates for French Canadians outside Quebec were as high as 75 per cent.

Lévesque thought provincial language policies made the trend toward assimilation even worse. Canadian history was filled with examples where the anglophone majority had denied francophone communities their language rights. Francophones were denied the right to educate their children in their own language. They also often did not have access to court and government services in French, and to laws written in French.

Lévesque believed there was no hope for French-Canadian culture outside of Quebec. Even within Quebec, laws had to protect the French language. Today there is still debate over the survival of fran-



Netsurfer

To learn more about francophone communities across Canada, visit the Government of Canada site called the Francophonie Connection at http://www.francophonie.gc.ca.

cophone communities outside Quebec. Not everyone agrees with René Lévesque's pessimistic forecast. On the one hand, there is no doubt that the legal rights of francophone communities were abused in the past. On the other hand, many of these injustices are being addressed. The three largest French-speaking communities outside Quebec are in Manitoba, Ontario, and New Brunswick.

Francophones in Manitoba

In 1985, the Supreme Court of Canada handed down a remarkable decision. It declared that all the laws passed by the province of Manitoba were illegal. The problem, from the Court's point of view, was very simple: none of the laws had been translated into French. The Court referred back to the Manitoba Act of 1870 that had brought the province into Confederation. The act had made two guarantees to the province's French-speaking community:

 there would be a system of French-language public schools funded by the province both French and English would be used in the courts and the provincial legislature, and all laws and records would be written in both languages.

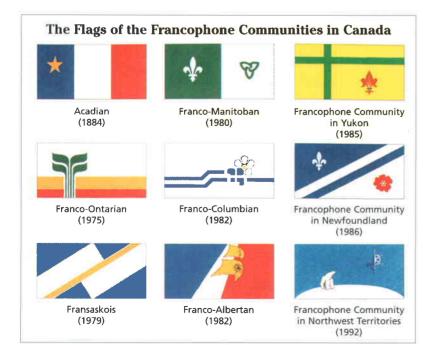
What had gone wrong in the meantime?

In 1870, the number of French- and English-speakers in Manitoba was about even. The francophones were mainly Métis, people of French and Aboriginal heritage. The anglophones were mainly descendants of the Scottish settlers brought by Lord Selkirk in the early 1800s. By 1890, the number of English-speakers in the province had increased considerably. Many more settlers from Ontario had moved into the province.

The majority of representatives in the Manitoba legislature were English-speaking Protestants. In 1890, the legislature passed the Official Language Act. It created an English-only public school system and made English the only language of the government and the courts.

In 1916, Manitoba passed another act, this time completely abolishing all bilingual teaching in the province. It was not until 1970 that the government again allowed French-language teaching in public schools. In 1979, the Supreme Court of Canada declared the Official Language Act unconstitutional, and all the province's laws illegal. Members of the provincial government were stunned. They asked the Supreme Court to clarify its ruling. In 1985, the Court stated again that all provincial laws were unconstitutional because they had not been translated into French. In the interests of public order, the Court said the present laws could remain in effect until the province had them translated. The Court gave the province five years to do this.

In 1993, another Supreme Court ruling declared that the French-speaking community in Manitoba had a constitutional right to schools in their own lan-



guage. In 1994, the province of Manitoba created a French-language school division. By this time, Franco-Manitobans had in effect been denied their constitutional rights for more than 100 years.

Francophones in Ontario

Ontario has the largest community of French Canadians outside Quebec. There are about 542 000 French Canadians in Ontario, and they live in every part of the province. Northern Ontario has a number of communities with large Frenchspeaking populations including Hearst, Kapuskasing, and Sturgeon Falls. Many Ouebeckers moved to northern Ontario in the early part of the century. They came to farm and to work in the forestry and mining industries. There are also pockets of francophones in southwestern Ontario, and many others live in Toronto. These include francophone immigrants from Vietnam, Somalia, and Haiti.

In 1912, the province of Ontario had passed Regulation 17. This law stated that there would be teaching in French in only the first two years of elementary school. The law brought a storm of protest from francophones, and it was difficult to enforce. By 1927, the government agreed that each school could make its own decision on French-language education.

But it was not until 1968 that French-speaking students were guaranteed the right by law to education in their own language in both primary and secondary schools. Ottawa and Toronto set up French-language school boards in 1988. Ten years later, there were hundreds of French-language primary and secondary schools, and 12 French school boards in Ontario. The province also had four French-language community colleges.

Other laws, such as the French Language Services Act in 1986, gave Franco-Ontarians the right to provincial government services in French. These services included being able to apply for driver's licences, and birth and marriage certificates in French. French services were provided in 23 areas of the province where the population of francophones was highest. In provincial courts, both French and English are official languages in Ontario.

But the issue of language rights still sparked controversy. In January 1990, the city of Sault Ste. Marie passed a resolution saying that English was its only official language. This started something of a minitrend among Ontario cities. By August that year, about 50 other cities had passed similar resolutions. Quebec nationalists pointed to Sault Ste. Marie as an example of why official bilingualism would never work, and why francophone communities outside Quebec were threatened. In 1994, an Ontario provincial court ruled that the city of Sault Ste. Marie had overstepped its authority. It did not have the official power to pass an English-only resolution.

Francophones in New Brunswick

When Canadian nationalists are asked for an example of where official bilingualism is a success, they point to New Brunswick. New Brunswick is the only officially bilingual province in Canada. It is seen as a model of "integration without assimilation." In other words, francophones live and work with their anglophone neighbours without losing their language or traditions.

The 250 000 francophones make up about 33 per cent of the province's population. Their numbers mean they have more political power here than in any other province of Canada except Quebec. Experts have estimated that French-Canadian assimilation rates in New Brunswick are stable at about 8 per cent.

Acadian dancers at the Canadian Heritage Festival in Prince Edward Island. Research the Acadian presence in PEI.



But French-English relations in the Maritimes have not always been so harmonious. Most of the francophones in New Brunswick are **Acadians**. The Acadians originally settled in the region in the early 1600s but were expelled by the

British in 1755. Thousands were sent to other British colonies in North America or fled to French colonies. The British did not allow them back until 1763. Most of those who returned settled along the northern peninsula of New Brunswick, where they established themselves as successful farmers and fishers. By 1900 they had become a distinct and vibrant community with their own set of symbols: a flag, an anthem, and a holiday.

The francophone community in New Brunswick has also fought for education and language rights over its long history. In 1871, the province had passed the Common Schools Act. This act established a system of English-only public schools.

Francophone Festivals

Wherever French Canadians have settled, they have established their own holidays and festivals. Many of these festivals celebrate the early history of the French communities with folk music and dancing. Others focus on other cultural activities and the arts. These are just a few of the francophone festivals held each year across the country.

Alberta—Carnaval de Saint-Isidore is an annual celebration held in an entirely francophone village in the northern part of the province every February.

Manitoba—Le Festival du Voyageur is western Canada's largest winter festival and is held in February in St.-Boniface, the francophone section of Winnipeg. The festival includes concerts, dances, dog sled races, and other activities, all organized around the theme of the early fur traders in the region.

Ontario—The city of Sudbury holds several francophone festivals, including a film festival called *CineFest* in September and *Les Boréales*, a summer music festival. Each June the *Franco-Ontarian Festival* is held in Ottawa with performances by francophone stars and artists.

New Brunswick—Le Festival Acadien de Caraquet, a mix of traditional and modern cultural activities, is organized around August 15th, the Acadian national holiday. The largest francophone festival outside Quebec is held every year in Edmunston at the end of July. It is called *La Foire Brayonne*, a four-day celebration of the history and culture of the Brayons, the nickname for the first French settlers of the Madawaska region of New Brunswick. About 140 000 visitors every year see local and nationally known folk, rock, and jazz bands, classical music groups, and theatre troupes.

Nova Scotia—An Acadian Heritage Festival is held every May in Halifax-Dartmouth. In July the community of Grand-Pré, known as the cradle of Acadia, holds its Acadian Days.

Newfoundland and Labrador—*Une journée dans l'passé* (A Day in the Past) is a folklore festival held in July at La Grand'Terre with French, Acadian, and Celtic music and dance. Every May 30 is Francophonie Day in the province.

After strong protest from the francophone community, the act was eventually changed to allow for religious and Frenchlanguage teaching after regular school hours. In 1960, the province's first francophone premier, Louis J. Robichaud, introduced a number of changes in language and education policies.

Robichaud's reforms and separatist activity by the **Parti-Acadien** prompted the province to pass the Official Languages Act in 1969. This act made New Brunswick the only officially bilingual province in the country, with both French and English school systems. Both school systems extended from kindergarten through Grade 12. The Université de Moncton also provided post-secondary education for more than 7000 francophone students.

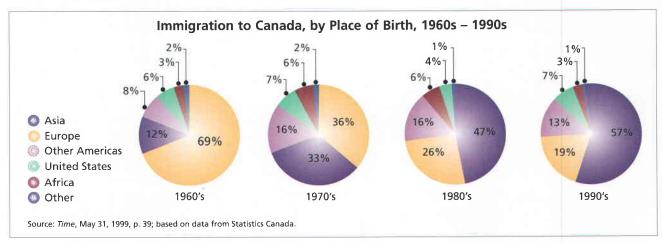
In 1979, New Brunswick passed a law declaring both French and English language groups in the province equal. Today, all provincial government services are available throughout the province in English and French. All laws and official records are written in both languages. In 1993, the Canadian Parliament officially enshrined New Brunswick's bilingual status in the Canadian constitution. This means that no future provincial government can change that status.

Immigrants and Refugees

After the changes to the Immigration Act in 1978, a new wave of immigrants came to Canada in the 1980s and 1990s. The majority were no longer from Britain, Europe, and the United States. They came from countries such as Jamaica, Vietnam, India, Pakistan, China, Hong Kong, and South Korea. Over the course of the century—and especially over the last 30 years—immigration changed the make-up of Canadian society. By the 1990s, Canada had become one of the most ethnoculturally and racially diverse countries in the world.

Immigration in the 1980s

Many times over the twentieth century, immigration has sparked controversy in Canada. The surge in new immigrants from Asia, Africa, and Latin America in the 1980s was no exception. While many Canadians recognized the important contribution new immigrants made to Canadian society, racial tensions also increased across the country in the 1980s. In Toronto, Montreal, and Vancouver, many Asian and Black Canadians faced job discrimination and racial prejudice. In one reported incident, a Montreal taxi company fired 24 Haitians on the grounds that customers did not want to



The Immigration Debate	
Concerns	Counterarguments
Immigration puts a strain on the Canadian economy. Critics have suggested limiting immigration levels to keep them in line with Canada's economic needs.	Immigration has proven to be of net economic benefit to Canada. Reports, including a 1991 Economic Council of Canada study, have shown that immigration creates jobs because it increases the population, thereby increasing the need for products and services. Experts say Canada's economic future depends on immigration to replace retiring workers.
Immigrants cause unemployment. An Angus Reid/ Southam News poll suggested 47 per cent of Canadians believed the country was accepting too many immigrants, and one-third said they took jobs away from Canadians.	Studies have shown that high immigration does not create more unemployment. Between 65 and 70 per cent of both immigrants and Canadian-born people aged 15 and older were employed in the workforce according to a 1991 Economic Council of Canada study.
Immigrants put a strain on the welfare system and social service programs. Many abuse these programs.	A 1991 study showed that immigrants were less likely to be on welfare than Canadian-born adults.
Fifty per cent of immigrants speak neither official lan- guage when they arrive. Without language to build on, it is very difficult for them to get established in the labour market.	English and French language programs are available for immigrants and many of them work hard to learn either language.
In the 1980s and 1990s, most immigrants settled in the cities, adding to the pressures that some people feel to move to the suburbs and rural areas. Since most immigrants are settling in Metro Toronto, some fear a major crisis there.	Much of Metro Toronto's recent population growth has been a result of immigration. The immigrants have brought their skills, talents, and hard work to the economy. Without immigration many of Canada's best scientists, nurses, and other skilled and unskilled workers would not be here. Nor would some of the most successful Canadian entrepreneurs, such as Thomas Bata, James Ting, and Frank Stronach.
The immigration system lets in criminals. In 1994, two immigrants were charged with killings in Toronto. The news media gave a tremendous amount of attention to these crimes.	Immigrants are under-represented in the Canadian prison population according to the report "Canada's Changing Immigrant Population 1994," published by Statistics Canada. Revisions to the Immigration Act made in 1993 aim to turn away any individuals actively involved in organized crime and terrorism.

be driven by a Black driver. On radio talk shows, callers expressed negative attitudes toward "non-white" immigrants.

A study done by the government found a disturbing level of racism in Canada. It found that the most common reason for racist attitudes was the fear that British and French Canadians were being overwhelmed by immigrants from other cul-

tures. In the Laurier era, 95 per cent of Canadians had been of British or French heritage. By the mid-1980s, the figure was down to just over 68 per cent. No one ethnocultural group made up more than 5 per cent of the population.

Disturbed by reports of racism, the government set up a race relations unit. Its aim was to discover the causes of racial

FAST FORWARD

In 1999, *Time* magazine estimated that the percentage of visible minorities in Canada's population would rise from 12 per cent in 1996, to 16 per cent in 2005, and to 20 per cent in 2016. These estimates were based on data from Statistics Canada. This is partly because birth rates in Canada will continue to decline. By 2020, experts think Canada's natural growth rate—population increase through new births—will reach zero. The only way Canada will continue to grow will be by accepting more immigrants, and more of these immigrants will be of visible minorities.

tension and to find ways to reduce it. Schools were encouraged to set up programs to deal with racist attitudes and behaviours. The courts provided more protection to victims of racial discrimination. The government gave assistance to immigrant women who, as a group, were often isolated at home with few opportunities to participate in Canadian life. The government also continued to fund writing about Canada's various ethnocultural and racial groups, their experiences, and their cultural activities.

Why were some Canadians still concerned about high levels of immigration? Some of the concerns and counterarguments are outlined in the chart on page 454.

Immigration in the 1990s

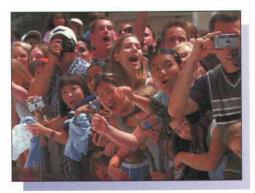
In the 1990s, Canada's immigration policy remained one of the most open in the world. We accepted more immigrants in proportion to our population than any other nation. A total of 252 042 people were admitted in 1993, one of the highest totals since World War I. By 1998, the number of immigrants had fallen to 174 000, but the government was considering a plan to increase that number to 300 000 a year.

The majority of new immigrants are settling in Canada's larger cities. About 70 000 immigrants a year, for example, settle in Toronto. In the year 2000, about

54 per cent of Toronto's population was made up of people from visible minorities, up from 30 per cent in 1991, and only 3 per cent in 1961. In Toronto, "minorities" have become the majority.

Today, the government of Canada, employers, labour unions, and the majority of Canadian citizens recognize that immigration is important for Canada's future for a number of reasons.

- From 1980 to 1998, Canada's birth rate declined by 25 per cent. Canada will probably reach a zero natural growth rate by 2020. Without substantial immigration, Canada's population could start to shrink.
- At the same time that birth rates are declining, the Canadian population is also getting older. In 2011, the oldest baby boomers will reach retirement age. By 2041, about 23 per cent of Canada's population will be 65 or older. (In 1981, only 10 per cent of the population was 65 or older; in 1921, only





Netsurfer
To find out more about
Canada's policies on
immigrants and refugees, visit
these web sites: Citizenship
and Immigration Canada at
http://cicnet.ci.gc.ca and the
Immigration and Refugee
Board of Canada at
http://www.cisr.gc.ca.

A group of young people in Toronto.
By 1999, Toronto had become one of the most ethnoculturally and racially diverse cities in the world.

5 per cent.) Without immigrants to replace these retiring workers, Canada's economy will stagnate. There will also not be enough workers to support the large number of retirees.

• In 1999, Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and parts of Ontario were feeling the effects of severe labour shortages. New Brunswick signed an agreement with the federal government to accept 200 immigrants a year to help fill labour needs in that province. Canada needs skilled workers. Without substantial numbers of immigrants, Canada's economy will no longer be able to compete in the global marketplace.

In the late 1990s, immigration officials accepted more immigrants from the Independent than the Family class. Independent class immigrants include entrepreneurs and highly skilled workers. In 1994-1995, applicants in the Family class made up 51 per cent of the total. Those in the Independent class made up 43 per cent. By 2000, applications in the Family class had fallen to 44 per cent, and those in the Independent class had risen to 53 per cent.

The Refugee Crisis

The Immigration Act of 1978 had clearly indicated Canada's commitment to accepting refugees. In most years, refugees make up about 10 per cent of all immigrants to Canada. In years when there is an international crisis of some sort, that proportion can rise to as high as 25 per cent. This is what happened in the late 1970s when the Vietnamese boat people arrived.

The process of admitting refugees, however, has not been without its problems. It is sometimes difficult for officials to tell legitimate refugees from those just claiming to be refugees to get quick admission to Canada. The government distinguishes between people who are flee-

ing political or religious persecution in their native land, and people trying to escape from poverty. These "economic refugees" are usually not admitted.

Refugees can enter Canada in one of two ways:

- they can apply to a Canadian or Quebec consular office abroad. If accepted, they are then brought to Canada.
- they can indicate at a port or other point of entry that they claim refugee status, or they can go to an immigration centre in Canada and claim refugee status.

When people claim refugee status within Canada, the government provides them with welfare, medical care, and legal aid until the claim is settled. Depending on the complexity of the case, the claims process can take anywhere from six months to several years. To support a refugee claimant for one year costs the government about \$56 000.

Over the 1980s, it became more and more common for people to try and "jump the queue." Instead of going through the usual immigration channels, some people claimed refugee status to get into Canada faster. Officials estimated that in the last six months of 1986, more than 10 000 people falsely claimed refugee status in Canada. Because of staff shortages and the time it took to clear these applications, the system got badly backlogged.

At the same time, more claimants were arriving on Canada's shores. In August 1986, about 150 Tamils from Sri Lanka were found drifting in lifeboats off the coast of Newfoundland. They did not have visas, but asked to be admitted to Canada as refugees. They were fleeing persecution and possible death in their own country. Sri Lanka had then been embroiled in a civil war for three years and thousands of people had died. In the following year, 174 East Indians, mostly Sikhs from the Punjab, came ashore in

Nova Scotia. They also claimed refugee status. Parliament was recalled from summer recess to pass emergency legislation aimed at halting the numbers of people seeking refugee status in Canada.

During the 1980s and 1990s, the Canadian government allowed several groups of special refugees to enter the country for humanitarian reasons. These included thousands of people fleeing civil war in Bosnia and Kosovo. But controversy arose when some critics noted that the government permitted thousands of white eastern Europeans into the country, but very few Black Rwandans who were fleeing a civil war in 1994.

Debate intensified again in 1999. From July to September, a number of ships filled with Chinese men, women, and children arrived off the British Columbia coast. Canadian officials allowed several hundred of the people to claim refugee status. But the move stirred a protest from both immigrant and non-immigrant communities in BC. Many former immigrants and refugees resented the fact that the new arrivals were being allowed to enter the country illegally, whereas they had had to



wait for years to enter through legal channels.

Again, there were public calls to tighten up procedures on refugee claims. The government cautioned against overreacting. Elinor Caplan, the Minister of Citizenship and Immigration, pointed out that the new arrivals made up less than one per cent of people applying for refugee status that year. The government would review the Immigration Act, she said, but the provision that granted every refugee claimant a hearing would not be changed.

A few of the 122 Chinese people taken off a ship near Vancouver Island in July 1999. Canadian authorities believed they may have paid "people smugglers" as much as \$47 000 to get them to Canada.

Revisions to the Immigration Act in the 1990s

- 1. Only close relations, such as spouses and dependent children, were allowed into the country under the family classification.
- 2. Stricter rules were designed to detect illegal immigrants or people with false travel documents.
- 3. The selection process was streamlined. More business immigrants and persons with money to invest were accepted. The government claimed the right to tell immigrants who were chosen because of their skills where they must live and for how long. Under the old rules, a physiotherapist who was accepted because his/her skills were needed in Newfoundland could settle in Toronto or Vancouver.
- 4. All immigrants were required to pay a \$975 tax when they applied for residence in Canada. The government stated that the tax was meant to offset the costs of language and skills training and other social services. After changes in 2000, refugees were no longer required to pay the tax.





SPOTLIGHT On...

Adrienne Clarkson

In 1999, Adrienne Clarkson was appointed governor general of Canada. She was familiar to many Canadians as an accomplished journalist, publisher, filmmaker, and civil servant. Prime Minister Jean Chrétien announced that her appointment "is a reflection of the diversity and inclusiveness of our society, and an indication of how our country has matured over the years."

Adrienne Clarkson was born in Hong Kong in 1939. Her family fled the country as war refugees when she was three

years old. Her parents, William and Ethel Poy, settled in Ottawa, where they lived in Lower Town among a mix of French- and English-Canadian families. Clarkson developed a passion for English literature and the French language, and became fluently bilingual.

After high school, Clarkson studied English literature at the University of Toronto and then studied for a time at the Sorbonne in Paris. Back in Canada, she began a long and varied career in broadcast journalism at the CBC. From 1987-1988, she was the president and publisher of the Canadian publishing house McClelland and Stewart. She was the first person to serve as agent-general for the Ontario government in Paris, and at the time of her appointment as governor general, she was head of the Canadian Museum of Civilization in Hull, Quebec.

During her time in the public eye, Clarkson has not avoided controversy. She is a strong opponent of free trade with the US, and has lobbied passionately for more generous funding for the



CBC. She and her husband, the writer John Ralston Saul, are known as strong Canadian nationalists.

Clarkson believes that the cultural and ethnic complexity of Canadian society is one of its great strengths. In her speech at her installation ceremony, she said, "To be complex does not mean to be fragmented. This is the paradox and the genius of our Canadian civilization."

As part of this speech, Clarkson also told a story about herself as a child.

Because my father had a job with the Department of Trade and Commerce and because we lived among French Canadians, I became fixated, from the age of five, with the idea of learning French. It had been explained to my parents that it was not possible for a Protestant to receive French-language education in Ottawa. In my lifetime, this has changed to such a radical degree that I don't even need to comment on it. But that early sense of something being impossible, which actually was nonsensical, put steel into me.

- 1. What qualifications does Clarkson bring to her position as governor general?
- 2. At the time of Clarkson's appointment, Bloc Québécois leader Gilles Duceppe said that the post of governor general "represents the vestiges of the past and has no sense today. . . . The role has essentially become an honorary one and the Bloc believes it should be abolished." Do you agree with this statement? Why or why not?

Canadian Culture in the 1990s

In the 1990s, Canadian artists continued to produce highly regarded works. The writer Carol Shields won a Pulitzer Prize for The Stone Diaries, and Michael Ondaatie was awarded a Booker Prize for The English Patient. Ouebec writers Anne Hébert and Marie-Claire Blais both won Governor General's Awards for their fiction. Shani Mootoo's first novel. Cereus Blooms at Night, was shortlisted for a Giller Prize in 1997. Director Atom Egoyan's film The Sweet Hereafter won a Special Grand Jury Prize at the Cannes Film Festival and took an Academy Award nomination for best picture of the year. Céline Dion, Shania Twain, and Sarah McLachlan collected multiple Juno and Grammy awards for their recordings.

Generation X

In 1991, Canadian writer Douglas Coupland published a novel that many people thought defined a generation. Critics called *Generation X* a novel about a "new lost generation." The book was compared to Ernest Hemingway's *The Sun Also Rises*. Hemingway's book focused on the generation that had fought in World War I. The book included a quotation from the American writer Gertrude Stein, who told Hemingway once, "You are all a lost generation." The "lost generation" became a tag to describe the young people disillusioned by the horrors of World War I.

Douglas Coupland's "new lost generation" was made up of people born at the end of the baby boom and later, between about 1960 and 1972. They came into their twenties during the 1980s, when the economy was beginning to slow down. Technological advances were also starting to shrink the world into a global village.



Canadian writer
Michael Ondaatje won
the prestigious Booker
Prize for his novel
The English Patient
in 1992.

Coupland described these young people as "marginalized." He felt they had been pushed out to the margins or edges of society. The generation before them, the bulk of the baby boomers, had taken all the good jobs, the good houses, and the good cars. Even though they were well educated, "Gen Xers" had to work at what Coupland called "McJobs." These were low-paying jobs in the service sector that held little prestige or promise. "Xers" could not afford to buy houses, and the cars they drove were "held together by Popsicle sticks, chewing gum, and Scotch tape."

The three main characters in Coupland's book felt it was a waste of time to protest against their social and economic conditions. Instead, they withdrew from society. To amuse themselves, they told each other funny stories illustrating their cynical attitudes toward life.

Coupland's manuscript for *Generation X* was rejected by every Canadian publisher who saw it. After being picked up by a US publisher, it became an instant hit and sold well over 100 000 copies in its first year. Coupland denied he was trying to define a generation in his book. He said it was an attempt to understand his own life. Nevertheless, the term became popular. "**Generation X**" became a label for a whole section of the population that saw itself on the margins of society, pushed there by the consumer-oriented baby boomers.





SPOTLIGHT ON ...

Deborah Cox

Deborah Cox is the first Canadian rhythm and blues singer to gain international recognition. Her album, *One Wish*, sold over a million copies. The single "Nobody's Supposed to Be Here" from the album topped the R&B charts.

Deborah Cox had to go to the United States to achieve her success, but she feels she is paving new ground for Canadian artists. She worked for a time as a back-up singer for Céline Dion and Roch Voisine. When she tried to find a Canadian record label for her solo work, she met with a hail of rejection letters. Finally, an American label, Artista Records, signed her in 1995.



Debbie Cox in performance.

You've got to pave the way and you're the one who has to go through all the struggles to free everybody else who's coming up behind you. . . . Being the only Black Canadian female to have this kind of success I think has really made a lot of Black Canadian women feel very very proud. I understand the position that I'm in now. I am a role model and people are watching everything I do and I don't mind taking on that responsibility.

In 1999, Deborah Cox was the first Canadian to win a Soul Train Music Award for best R&B /Soul single by a female. She also won a Juno award for Best R&B/Soul recording.

Deborah Cox also broke new ground in another way. In 1999, she joined the Lilith Fair organized by Canadian artist Sarah McLachlan. The Fair was conceived as an allfemale travelling music show originally started in 1996. McLachlan was tired of hearing that women vocalists lacked the "drawing power" of male singers and bands. The Lilith Fair was a major success, but was criticized in its first years as "a folk festival for white women." Cox was asked to join the Lilith Fair for the 1999 edition and accepted. She acknowledged the effort to recognize diversity and the talent of various ethnocultural and racial groups.

- 1. How has Deborah Cox broken new ground for Canadian music artists?
- 2. Sometimes, Canadian content regulations can prevent singers like Deborah Cox from getting airplay on Canadian radio stations. Her single "Nobody's Supposed to Be Here" did not qualify for the Canadian content rules because two of what are known as the MAPL (music, artist, lyrics, and production) were not Canadian. Her Canadian distributor had her re-record the single in Toronto to try to get more airplay. Do you think Deborah Cox's single should have gotten more airplay? What are the advantages and disadvantages of the Canadian content rules?

Hockey at the End of the Century

Many changes occurred in Canada's national sport in the years following the 1972 Summit Series. The number of teams in the National Hockey League more than doubled, from 14 in 1972 to 30 in the year 2000. In the 1979-80 season, Wayne Gretzky began his professional career with the Edmonton Oilers. "Number 99" led his team to four Stanley Cup wins in six years. At the same time, he rewrote the record book with his individual scoring statistics. Many people consider him the greatest player of all time.

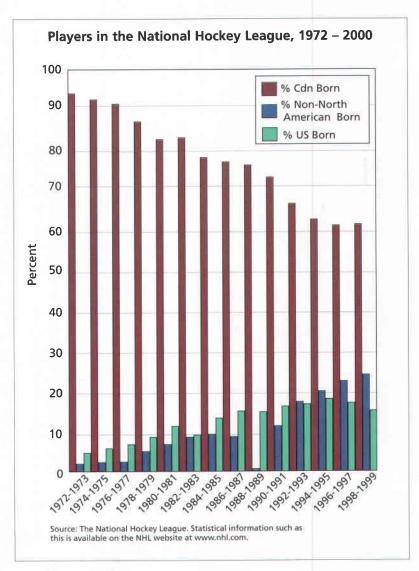
Women's hockey was also gaining recognition. Canadian women's teams placed first in world championships in 1987, 1990, 1992, 1994, and 1997. When women's hockey was made an Olympic sport in 1998, Canadians were glued to their television sets to watch the medal games. The Canadian women's team took a silver medal at the Nagano Olympics after a hard-fought loss to the United States in the final game.

There was another growing trend in professional hockey. In the 1972-1973 season, well over 90 per cent of NHL players had been Canadian-born. By the 1999-2000 season, Canadian representation in the NHL had dropped to less than 60 per cent. The number of non-North American players had climbed to almost 28 per cent of the total. Seven of the 30 NHL teams were captained by players from outside North America.

In Canada, we seem to take our hockey very seriously. After the 1972 Summit Series, "Canadian-style" hockey was criticized as mainly a "dump and chase" game. Players often dumped the puck into the opposite end and then fought for it along the boards. Soviet hockey players were seen as more skilled in puck control and skating. In fact, play in the NHL today has



Players sing O Canada after defeating the US team 4-3 in the gold medal game of the 1997 Women's World Hockey Championship.



become a mix of these two styles. Players have learned from each others' strengths.

When the Canadian men's hockey team failed to win a medal at the 1998 Nagano Olympics, many people again questioned the Canadian system and style of hockey. Successive failures to win gold medals in the World Junior Championships also brought waves of criticism.

The fact remains that Canada has more people playing hockey than any other country in the world today. Young people in Canada, both boys and girls, play, practise, and dream about this sport. There is no doubt that the game remains a prominent part of the Canadian identity in the new millennium.



Activities

Understand Facts and Concepts

1. Add these new terms to your Factfile.

globalization

Meech Lake Accord Charlottetown Accord

Bloc Québécois

Reform party

Quebec Referendum of 1995

Calgary Declaration

unilateral

Acadians

Parti-Acadien

Refugee crisis

Generation X

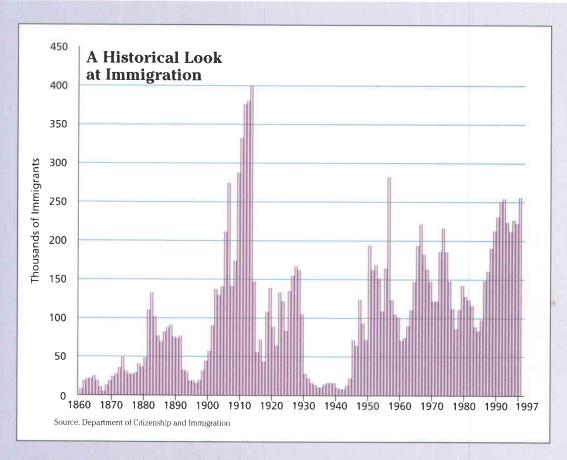
- 2. In an organizer, identify each of the following people or groups. Then summarize the role each played in the constitutional debates during the 1980s and 1990s.
 - a) Jacques Parizeau
 - b) Elijah Harper
 - c) the National Action Committee on the Status of Women
- d) Lucien Bouchard
- e) Jean Chrétien
- f) Preston Manning
- g) Brian Mulroney
- 3. Work with a partner. One person plays the role of a French-Canadian student. Explain to your anglophone partner, in your own words, what makes Quebec a "distinct society." Your partner explains whether or not he or she agrees and why.
- 4. Write headlines reporting the results of the 1995 Quebec Referendum for each of the following publications:
 - a) a Montreal English-language newspaper
 - b) The Regina Leader Post
 - c) Le Journal du Québec
- 5. a) Define the term "refugee."
 - b) Why did the arrival of Chinese refugees off the coast of British Columbia in 1999 cause controversy?
 - c) How does the Canadian government deal with the issue of illegal immigrants?

Think and Communicate

- 6. a) Which groups opposed the Meech Lake Accord? Why?
 - b) Were the concerns of these groups considered in the Charlottetown Accord? Explain.
 - c) Suggest reasons for the defeat of the Charlottetown Accord.
- 7. Summarize, in your own words, the Supreme Court's decision on whether or not Quebec could separate unilaterally from the rest of Canada. What was the significance of this ruling?
- 8. Make a list of national and regional symbols that appear throughout this chapter. Choose one of these symbols and research its history and meaning. Explain to your classmates how it helps to develop peoples' sense of identity.
- 9. "This is a paid political announcement." In groups, create TV, radio, or Internet advertisements paid for by the Bloc Québécois or the Reform party. The ads should clearly explain what the political party stands for, or what the party's viewpoint is on a current issue. Limit your ads to 60 seconds and record them on video. Be creative.
- 10. a) In groups, discuss why some anglophone Canadians object to Quebec's language laws and the fact that Quebec's only official language is French. Now, find out how many Canadian provinces are officially bilingual. Does this information change your viewpoint? Explain.
 - b) Outline one example of the abuse of French language rights outside Quebec. If you were a francophone living in Quebec, describe how hearing about this would make you feel. Why?
- 11. Analyze the graph on the next page by answering these questions.
 - a) In which year was immigration to Canada highest? Explain why.
 - b) In which years was immigration lowest? Why?
 - c) Explain the rise in immigration in the late 1950s.
 - d) Describe the general trend in immigration since 1960.

Apply Your Knowledge

- 12. Arrange a panel discussion. Invite two or three francophone Canadians who live outside Quebec to be guest panelists. Prepare questions for the interview in order to find out:
 - a) whether they feel assimilated into English-Canadian society
 - b) how they keep alive their French-Canadian culture
 - c) what legal rights they have to services and education in their own language
 - d) any experiences of injustice they have encountered in the past
 - e) their predictions about the survival of French-Canadian culture outside Quebec.



- 13. a) In groups, discuss the degree of racism in Canadian society today. Support your views with specific examples, either from the news media or from your own experience. Brainstorm ways to combat racism in society.
 - b) Design posters to commemorate International Day for the Elimination of Racism (March 21). Arrange to display the posters in classrooms and hallways of your school.
- 14. Read a short story or poem by a writer from one of Canada's ethnocultural communities. Or, listen to the music and lyrics of a song by an artist from one of Canada's ethnocultural communities. Report to the class summarizing the theme of the piece, telling about the author or artist, and describing your impressions.
- 15. Brainstorm, in groups, the identifying characteristics of your own generation. You can call it "Generation Z!" What sets you and your contemporaries off from the baby boomers and Generation X? Make predictions about how your generation will affect the world in the future. Share your predictions with other groups and discuss any differences.

Get to the Source

16. Writer Denise Chong said this about what it means to her to be Canadian and what lessons the past holds for us.

I ask myself what it means to be a Canadian. I was lucky enough to be born in Canada. So I look back at the price paid by those who made the choice that brought me such luck

....The past holds some moral authority over us. Rather than forget it, we must acknowledge that we have one, and learn the lessons of it. We have to be vigilant [watchful] about looking past the stereotypes and seeing the contrasting truths. It means understanding that someone's grandfather didn't change the family name from French to English to forsake his heritage, but to make it easier to find a job. It means lifting the charge against the early Chinese of having no family values by seeing how the laws and history cleaved their families into two. It means going to the Legion and looking at a Sikh and seeing the veteran as well as the turban.

Source: Denise Chong, "Being Canadian," in *Canadian Speeches: Issues of the Day*, vol. 9, no. 2 (May 1995), 18.

- a) What does Denise Chong mean when she says we have to look beyond the stereotypes of the past? What examples does she give of these stereotypes?
- b) What does she suggest the past means to her as a Canadian born in Canada?



Economic, Social, and Political Trends

*

The Technological Revolution

Computers for Everyone

Ford Motor Company today made an announcement that indicates just how much technology is changing the workplace—and the lives of workers around the world.

The company revealed a plan to provide every one of its 350 000 employees worldwide (17 000 in Canada) with a home computer package and unlimited Internet access. In return, Ford would deduct \$5 a month from each employee's paycheque. Many analysts hail the move as a "win-win" situation for Ford and its workers. The deal could benefit the company by:

- increasing the technological knowledge of its entire workforce. Assembly line and plant workers would benefit equally with office workers and managers.
- improving customer service. As employees become more computer literate, they would better understand why customers like to shop and make inquiries on-line.
- improving communications between management and workers. Memos could be sent
 to all employees by e-mail, a much faster
 method than delivering them by hand. This
 would also cut the company's paper costs.
- increasing Ford's profile as a leader in electronic commerce. Ford already markets some of its products through its Auto-xchange.com

site. By bringing its whole workforce on-line, opportunities in e-commerce can only increase.

What benefits do analysts see for employees? Besides the obvious benefit of getting stateof-the-art computer equipment at low cost, employees:

- would increase their technological knowledge and skills. This would give them more marketable skills, which in the long run could increase their salaries.
- would have easy access to Ford's electronic services.
- could take advantage of bulk discounts that Ford negotiated with different suppliers.



- could use the computer and fax machine to work at home on a regular or semi-regular basis.
- would have better access to their union executive and to fellow workers around the world.

For these reasons, union officials seem as enthusiastic about the deal as Ford management. Are there any negative aspects? Some analysts worry that Ford could use the computers to monitor employees' habits at home. They also point out that having the equipment in the

house might blur the borders between work and home life. The move could mean that Ford workers are "on call" 24 hours a day, seven days a week.

Any way you look at it, the announcement is a striking example of how the workplace is changing. The telecommunications revolution means that Canadians are re-thinking the way they work—and that means also rethinking the way they live and deal with people around the world.

- 1. If either of your parents worked for the Ford Motor Company, what advice would you give them about taking the offer of a home computer from the company? Why?
- 2. From the company's point of view, what is the most important reason for making the offer? Why?
- 3. How could this deal benefit both office and plant workers?

The Changing Workplace

By the beginning of the year 2000, it was obvious that computers and telecommunications equipment were revolutionizing the Canadian workplace. The effects were being felt in almost every aspect of working life, including basic building design.

Most older buildings were not designed with the automated workplace in mind. For one thing, computers use a lot of power. When several of them are placed in the same room, they also generate a lot of heat. To avoid **sick building syndrome**, or an unhealthy workplace, many buildings had to be renovated. Electrical systems were upgraded to avoid power surges and outages. Ventilation systems had to be improved to keep temperature levels even,

to make sure there was enough oxygen, and to combat pollutants in recycled air.

Experts in **ergonomics**, the science of workplace design, also began to make workspaces more flexible. In the past, many workplaces had either private walled offices or open rooms where employees sat at rows of desks. Modern workplaces tend to have rooms divided into cubicles with portable walls.

This arrangement reflects the way many businesses are organized today. They do not divide their workforce into traditional departments. Instead, they put together teams to work on specific projects. Each time a new project begins, a new team is formed. Since cubicles can be easily taken apart and then put together in different ways, the workplace can be reorganized to meet the demands of each new team.

Workplaces today have been redesigned to accommodate computers and telecommunications equipment.



Factories, shops, distribution centres, and other workplaces have also undergone major changes. Car repair shops now include computers that can diagnose problems. Warehouses are organized through sophisticated inventory and computer tracking programs. Cash registers in stores and other businesses use electronic scanners and automatically record all purchases into the computer system. There are few workplaces today without a computer.

Just as the workplace is changing, so are peoples' jobs. The following are just a few of the major trends affecting Canadian workers today. We live in what many people are calling the "Information Age." The technological changes are having an impact not only on the workplace, but on the Canadian economy and society as a whole. Just think for a moment about how this new technology has changed your life at school and at home over your lifetime.

Telecommuting

Telecommuting means working at a distance from the workplace or working at home. Through computers, telephones, modems, and fax machines, telecommuters can keep in close touch with their company office. They can transfer the work they do at home to the office electronically.

What are the advantages for workers? One advantage is flexible working hours.

Telecommuting can work both for freelancers and for salaried workers who want to divide their work time between home and office. Telecommuters can also avoid the time and stress of travelling to work in heavy traffic or on public transit. At the beginning of the century, it was bicycles that allowed people to live farther from their place of work. Then automobiles and electric trams led to the spread of suburbs around cities. Today, many telecommuters are selling their city homes and moving to the country.

What are the disadvantages? Many workers say that the new technology actually means a heavier rather than a lighter workload. They feel they are bombarded by faxes, e-mail messages, and mounds of other information they must sift through. Some also comment on how pervasive the new technology is—in other words, there is no getting away from it. Cell phones and computers mean that workers can be reached even on vacation. Lines between work life, home life, and leisure time have become blurred.

The Job Shift

Technological change is creating a demand for new types of workers. Canadian economic consultant Nuala Beck has pointed out a new demand for what she calls knowledge workers.

Knowledge workers are people who have been trained to provide certain information services. Since their skills are mental, these workers are highly mobile and adaptable to change. In other words, they can apply their skills to many different jobs, in different industries, and in different locations. Unlike miners, forestry workers, or factory workers, they are not tied to a particular location or job. They include not only workers in high-tech industries such as computer programming and telecommunications, but also profession-

als such as teachers, doctors, accountants, and lawyers. Corporate executives and senior managers also qualify as knowledge workers.

Beck believes Canada's economy will grow early in the twenty-first century. Canada currently has one of the highest percentage of knowledge workers in the world, twice as high as Japan. The most successful economies in the twenty-first century, Beck predicts, will be those with the greatest number of knowledge workers.

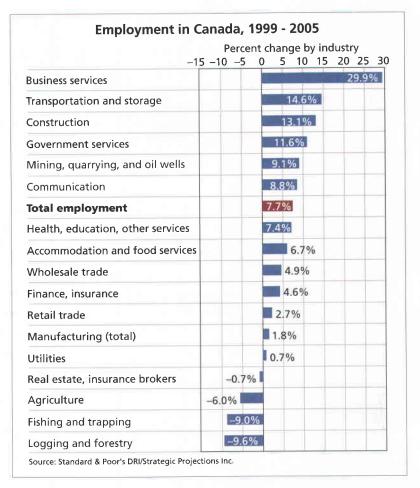
The Information Age is creating a shift in Canada's workforce. Between 1999 and 2005, the percentage of workers employed in "business services" will show the largest increase. On the other hand, the growth rate for workers in traditional resource industries such as agriculture, fishing and trapping, and forestry will be negative.

Self-Employed Workers

According to Statistics Canada, more and more Canadians are working for themselves. From 1976 to 1998, the number of self-employed workers doubled to 2.5 million. This was partly because of mass layoffs in sectors such as forestry, the civil service, and banking. It was also because many knowledge workers were gaining the technological skill and communications equipment to strike out on their own. Small businesses like antique dealers are becoming more aggressive about marketing their products on the Internet. This means many of them no longer have to pay rent for shop or office space.

Job Switching

In the early part of the twentieth century, it was common for workers to stay with the same employer for their whole career. Today, many more workers switch jobs often. They take new jobs as they are offered higher salaries or better opportunities. In fact, many people will switch not



just their job but their whole career path two or three times during their working life. Knowledge workers are especially mobile. By taking time off for education, they can apply their skills to a whole new career path in a relatively short time.

Greater Stress

The pace of technological change has brought with it increased stress levels for many workers. Since 1965, experts have measured the rate of technological change by a formula called **Moore's Law**. This law states that the amount of circuitry that can be placed on a silicon chip doubles every 18 months. In other words, every year and a half computers are twice as powerful as they were before. At this

Which industries will experience the greatest growth in the first five years of the twenty-first century? Which will show negative growth? Why?

rate, the average worker has difficulty keeping up with all the changes in the workplace. To try and stay current, people work longer hours and take more courses in their time off. With no chance for rest and relaxation, they burn out.

The threat of losing jobs to machines has also increased workplace stress. Bank tellers are an example. They are being almost completely eclipsed by automatic teller machines or ATMs. Some jobs have been "de-skilled" by the new technology. Cashiers, for example, no longer need to calculate correct change or even punch in prices of items. Electronic scanners automatically enter prices and make all calculations. Some employers feel justified in paying cashiers lower wages as a result.

In some cases, the new technology makes it easier for employers to monitor how quickly and efficiently their employees are working. This puts added pressure on many workers. Some analysts have referred to "the electronic sweatshop." Every keystroke a keyboarder makes every working day can be recorded and monitored, for example.

Economic Trends

What do all these technological and work-place changes mean for Canada? For one thing, the vast distances in the country are less of a problem for doing business. A worker in St. John's, Newfoundland, can send an order to a company in Vancouver by e-mail and it arrives almost instantaneously. The order can be delivered the next day by an overnight courier service. A business no longer has to locate close to its customers, who are usually in a city. Instead it can set up near its suppliers, which are often in rural areas. This way, a business makes higher profits. It pays less in rent for rural than urban office or shop

space, and its transportation costs are lower.

Similarly, workers in knowledge-based industries have traditionally lived in cities or in the surrounding suburbs. In 1996, *Maclean's* identified a growing trend in North America. Many of these workers were selling their homes and moving to the country. If this trend continues, the demand for middle-income housing and business real estate will drop in many cities.

Technological advances have also helped to open borders between countries. This is especially true of the border between Canada and the United States. By the beginning of the twenty-first century, there were two major effects on the Canadian economy—the "brain drain" and the drive for a common currency.

The Brain Drain

In the 1990s, large numbers of highly skilled and trained Canadians were leaving the country to take better-paid jobs in the US. Canadian journalists and policy makers called this trend the **brain drain**. *Time* magazine (11 May 1998) reported that in 1989, about 2600 Canadians were issued temporary work visas to the US. By 1998, that number had skyrocketed to more than 32 600. A high percentage of these Canadians were in the computer software field. Others included:

- Doctors—By 1998, more than 10 000
 Canadian doctors were practising in the US. This represented a 20 per cent increase from 1985. As well, from 1994 to 1996, 17 000 Canadian nurses moved to the States. In March 1999, the Canadian Medical Association warned that the shortage of doctors in rural areas was in danger of reaching crisis levels unless the government took action immediately.
- University professors—By the end of the 1998 academic year, the electrical engi-

neering department at McGill University had a 20 per cent vacancy rate, the result of professors leaving to take positions at US universities and research centres. Other Canadian universities reported similar problems in keeping their senior teaching staff.

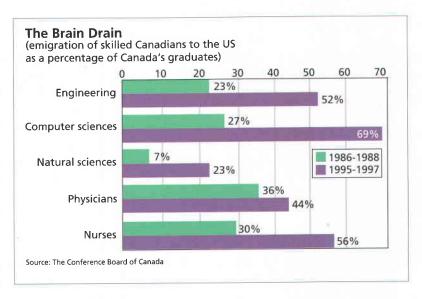
• Lawyers—By the end of the 1990s, firstyear lawyers who would be making \$45 500 a year in Toronto could command \$100 000 salaries in New York City.

In all of these cases, the US salaries worked out to be even greater because income taxes in the US are much lower than in Canada. The people who moved were not worried about losing the social benefits their taxes paid for in Canada. They were able to negotiate medical insurance as part of their benefits package, and they made good enough salaries to send their children to private schools.

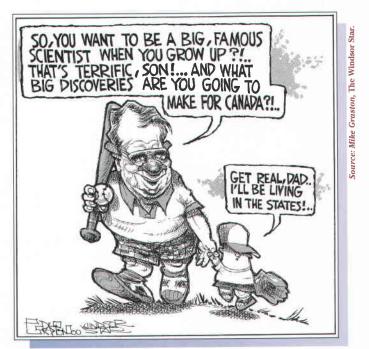
This trend raised a number of questions. What effect would the loss of so many talented people have on Canada's economic competitiveness? Would Canada's health care system be threatened by the loss of so many doctors and nurses? How long can any country continue to lose its most talented engineers, doctors, and lawyers without suffering permanent damage?

A number of solutions were suggested. These included improving salaries and incentive packages for the workers. Another was to set up more aggressive recruiting programs for graduating students. An innovative idea was for companies to pay off the student loans of new employees if they agreed to stay in Canada for at least three to five years. The Reform party used the brain drain as an argument for lower personal income tax rates.

Some groups pressed the federal government to increase funding for high-tech and medical research projects. In Canada, the Medical Research Council had a 1998



budget of \$166 million. The budget for the equivalent body in the US, the National Institutes of Health, was \$9.5 billion. At a time when the Canadian government planned further cuts in research funds, the US government meant to double the budget for the Institutes of Health over a five-year period.



Ultimately, though, the technological advances that helped create the problem might also offer the solution. In 1999, Time interviewed the Canadian inventor of the Java computer language, James Gosling. Gosling predicted that the Internet will eventually make it unnecessary for Canadians in high-tech industries to move to the US. A computer programmer who lives in rural northern Ontario could start a new firm, advertise, and take orders for it over the Internet. Gosling believed that the Internet would contribute to a more widespread workforce, one that was less concentrated in the cities. Other government reports have suggested that the number of highly qualified immigrants coming to Canada is making up for the recent brain drain.

A Common Currency

You may not have thought of it, but you carry around one of our most common and powerful national symbols in your wallet. Money is a symbol of the country in which we live. Take a five-dollar bill out of your wallet and really look at it. What do you see? On the front is a portrait of one of Canada's prime ministers, Wilfrid Laurier. On the back is the picture of a bird, the kingfisher, that can be found in Canada from Prince Edward Island to British Columbia. The words on the bill are printed in English and French, signifying that Canada is a bilingual country. The national coat of arms and a picture of the federal Parliament buildings are also on the bill.

Each of these pictures is a symbol of Canada, but so is the bill itself. Imagine a tourist coming to North America for the first time, say a young woman from Japan. She travels through the United States, then crosses the border at Niagara Falls and enters Canada. The geography is pretty much the same on either side of the border, but she notices immediately the money has changed. This difference says to her, "You

have entered another country, one with its own laws, history, and way of doing things."

She looks at a five-dollar bill just like the one you are holding in your hand, and sees the words, "Bank of Canada/Banque du Canada." These words make it plain that Canada, as a sovereign nation, has its own central bank and directs its own monetary policy. Our tourist begins to understand that there are basic and important differences between the country she has just left and the one she has entered.

In the 1990s, economists and policy makers debated whether Canada should scrap the Canadian dollar and have a common currency with the United States. Canada currently has what economists call a **floating exchange rate** with the US. This means that the value of the Canadian dollar rises or falls in relation to the US dollar based on the strength of each country's economy.

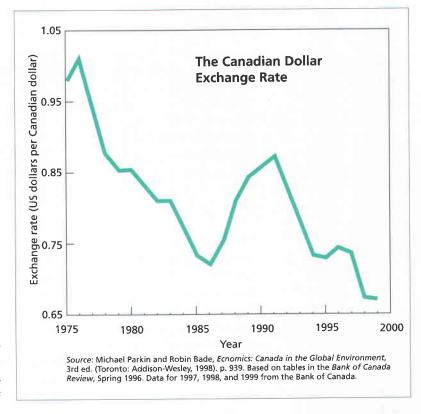
What does this mean? Much of Canada's economy is based on resource products such as lumber, minerals, and grains. If the price of these products falls on world markets, then the Canadian dollar also falls in value in relation to the US dollar. Over the course of many months, it may drop from 75 cents US to 70 cents.

During the 1960s and 1970s, the Canadian and US currencies were relatively stable. But in the 1980s and 1990s, the Canadian dollar went for a roller coaster ride. The "loonie" went up and down in relation to the US "greenback," but the general trend was downward. Over the summer of 1998, the dollar hit an all-time low of 63 cents US. The Bank of Canada was forced to spend a billion dollars to defend the dollar against currency speculators who were driving its value downward. Economists called the situation a currency crisis. Some said it would be best to abandon the Canadian dollar altogether and have a common currency with the US.

Not everyone agreed, but by 1999 opinion polls were showing some surprising results. A *Maclean's/CBC* poll showed Canadians were almost equally divided on whether a common currency would benefit Canada. Of those polled, 44 per cent said it would. Forty-two per cent said Canada would "lose out." Eight per cent could not decide. In an Angus Reid poll reported by *The Globe and Mail*, 77 per cent said they expected a common currency would be a reality within 20 years. Why did something that seemed unthinkable not too long before suddenly appear inevitable?

Advocates said that a common currency would benefit Canada because:

- the dollar would be stable, not rising and falling in value. This would benefit people travelling between Canada and the US, whether for business or pleasure. A retired couple in North Bay would not have to worry about cancelling a Florida vacation because of fluctuations in the exchange rate.
- trade between the two countries would be simpler and cheaper. This would be an advantage because in North America, the natural trade flows are northsouth rather than east-west. Ontario exports very few products to other provinces in Canada; about 90 per cent of its exports go to the US. Queen's University economics professor Thomas Courchene estimated Canada could save \$5 billion a year in currency conversion costs by using a common currency. The move would also make doing business on the Internet easier.
- productivity in Canada would rise. Companies that do business with the US would no longer have to worry about a falling dollar cutting into their profits. They could concentrate instead on raising their output.
- more money would stay in the country.
 Fewer investors would try to shelter



their money by investing it in Asia or Europe.

 a common currency worked for Europe. Eleven countries in the European Union agreed to give up their national currencies for the "euro," beginning in 1999. This has made travelling and doing business in Europe a much simpler affair.

Canadian nationalists and federal government officials denied that a common currency would solve the country's economic problems. They resisted the move because:

 Canada could lose control over its own economy. At present, the Bank of Canada has some control over the economy by adjusting interest rates and the money supply. Under a united currency, Canada's monetary policy would probably be set by the Federal Reserve Board in Washington. The exchange rate for the Canadian dollar is measured in US dollars. Describe the pattern shown in this graph.

FLASH BACK

In the 1970s, many Canadian nationalists were concerned about the extent of American ownership in the Canadian economy. After the Committee for an Independent Canada (CIC) lobbied the government, measures were taken that reduced American ownership from approximately 36 per cent to 26 per cent.

In a 1999 Maclean's article, Canadian nationalist and CIC founding member Peter Newman charged that "the Americanization of our economy has entered a disturbing new reality." Whereas Americans had bought about \$8 billion worth of Canadian companies in 1997, in 1999 that figure more than tripled, to \$25.6 billion. Warned Newman: "We now control a smaller portion of our productive wealth than the citizens of any other industrialized country on earth."

- Canada would lose a valuable "safety valve" during tough economic times. Currently, when prices for Canadian exports fall, the value of the Canadian dollar also falls. Since fewer dollars are needed to buy the goods, they are more competitive in the US market. This means Canadian exports continue to sell. But with a united currency, the value of the dollar would remain high. The only way manufacturers could adjust would be to cut back on production and lay off employees.
- Canada registered large increases in trade with the US over the 1980s and 1990s, even with a floating exchange rate. Why change a system that seems to be working?
- the comparison with the European Union is not valid. Germany has the most powerful economy in Europe, but still produces only about 30 per cent of total economic output there. In North America, the US accounts for 80 per cent of economic output and would therefore demand more control over a unified currency. Also, in Europe the currency confusion was much greater. with 15 countries issuing different currencies.
- · there is no guarantee the US would agree to such a move. Alan Greenspan, chairman of the Federal Reserve Board,

noted that the US is under no obligation to help other countries solve their economic problems.

Clearly, the debate will continue. The result may depend on the way the global economy develops. If Canada and the US register steady economic growth and stay competitive with other regions of the world, there will be no pressure to change things by uniting their currencies. That could change, though, if both countries fall into a lengthy recession.





Labour Issues

As Canada entered the twenty-first century, organized labour had to deal with two trends threatening the jobs of Canadian workers. The first was technological advances, and the second was global competition. Computers and telecommunications equipment meant that machines were doing some jobs faster and more cheaply than human workers could. At the same time, stiff competition forced many companies to save money by laying off some of their workers.

In the 1990s, the Canadian banking industry was a good example of both these trends. By 1996, analysts were predicting that 35 000 banking jobs would be lost over the next 10 years. With the widespread use of automatic teller machines

(ATMs), banks needed fewer human tellers. Computerized accounting and record-keeping programs meant that the banks also needed fewer clerks.

A storm of controversy erupted in 1998 when the Royal Bank proposed a merger with the Bank of Montreal. A few months later, the CIBC announced it wanted to merge with the Toronto Dominion Bank. Critics charged that the banks were only worried about corporate profits. They said the mergers would mean closed branches, especially in rural areas, and job losses for tens of thousands of employees.

The bank presidents denied these charges. They said they had to respond to competition in the global marketplace and technological advances. They pointed to the US. There, between 1987 and 1997, the number of banks had decreased by one-third, largely due to mergers. There had been a similar trend in Europe, and in 1996, Japan's two largest banks merged to form an economic powerhouse, the Bank of Tokyo-Mitsubishi. If Canadian banks were to compete against these international giants, they too would have to merge forces their presidents argued.

Bank presidents also pointed to another example. Wells Fargo in the US and the Dutch bank ING had both used sophisticated telephone banking to get into the Canadian market. Because these banks offered all their services over the telephone and through the Internet, they did not have to open branch offices in Canada. They were able to lure customers away from Canadian banks by offering business loans at better rates. Canadian banks could only afford better technologies and more competitive rates if they were bigger, their presidents said.

In the end, federal Finance Minister Paul Martin rejected the bank mergers, partly because of concern over major job losses. When in 2000, Martin approved a smaller merger between Toronto Dominion and Canada Trust, bank officials admitted the move would result in the loss of almost 5000 jobs over three years.

Labour unions worried that this trend towards mergers and job losses would be felt in other areas of the economy as well. In 1999, the Canadian Labour Congress (CLC) and the Canadian Union of Public Employees (CUPE) joined in a massive protest against a meeting of the World Trade Organization (WTO) in Seattle. The WTO was meeting for its Millennium Round of trade negotiations. Labour organizations protested the meeting because they said the WTO:

- wanted to privatize public services such as hospitals and schools. Taking hospitals out of government control and giving them to private corporations would mean job losses and user fees, according to union officials.
- would deny countries control over human rights and the environment. In the past, the WTO had taken action against the European Union when it wanted to ban imports of hormonetreated beef, and against the US when it wanted to keep out pollution-causing additives to gasoline. The WTO did not want to allow these trade restrictions. Critics said these cases were proof that the WTO put financial concerns before the health and rights of a nation's citizens.



Protestors at the World Trade Organization meeting in 1999, an event that became known as the "Battle in Seattle." What were some of the issues people were protesting about?



After the federal election of 1997, Canada resembled a patchwork quilt of five distinct regions represented by five different political parties. The Progressive Conservatives took most seats in the Maritimes. while the Bloc Québécois swept Quebec. The Liberals owed their majority in Parliament to winning 101 of 103 seats in Ontario, but they failed to dominate in any other province. The Prairie Provinces of Manitoba and Saskatchewan were the stronghold of the NDP, and to a lesser extent the Reform party. In Alberta and BC, Reform dominated every other party. In this election, the Reform party replaced the Bloc Québécois as the official opposition.

The election made many people wonder whether Canada was becoming more regionalized than ever before. If so, what were the reasons? Did the election results pose a threat to national unity? What solutions could be offered to deal

First leader of the Reform party, Preston Manning. The party became the official opposition after the 1997 election. Why is Reform considered a regional party?



with this problem? The last chapter (Chapter 18) looked at the causes of Quebec's discontent and the reasons why voters there embraced the BO.

In the Atlantic region, people were also angry at the federal government. The region had suffered some serious economic blows in recent years, especially with the collapse of the fishery. That crisis had led to 30 000 job layoffs. In 1995, unemployment in Atlantic Canada reached a staggering 15 per cent, 4 per cent higher than the national average. Because the economy in the Maritimes was largely resource-based, there were few secondary manufacturing jobs to fall back on. People in Atlantic Canada were also upset at the Liberal cutbacks in provincial transfer payments to the provinces, especially those that affected health care and job creation programs.

In the West, many voters still felt sidelined by Ottawa. They believed the government was too preoccupied with issues such as bilingualism and Quebec separatism to spare any time for western concerns. The birth of the Reform party can be traced to this general feeling of western alienation and to one specific incident in particular.

A group of Manitoba businesses had put together a bid for a multi-billion-dollar contract to build Canada's CF-18 fighter jets. In 1987, the federal government awarded the contract to a Quebec group instead, even though the Manitoba bid was less expensive. In the eyes of many experts, the Manitoba bid was also superior from a technical point of view. This incident happened only two years after the Supreme Court of Canada had ruled that all of Manitoba's laws were illegal because they had not been translated into French.

Adversarial feelings were inflamed in the province and spread across the West. A group called the Western Reform Asso-





SPOTLIGHT ON ...

Ujjal Dosanjh

In February 2000, Ujjal Dosanjh was elected leader of the New Democratic Party in British Columbia and became premier of the province. He is Canada's first Indo-Canadian premier.

Dosanjh was born in a small village in India. At 17, he set out alone from India. After a stay in Britain, he arrived in British Columbia in 1968. He worked in a sawmill by day and studied political science at night until he suffered a serious injury in a workplace accident. After his injury, unable to work in the mill, he became a full-

time university student. He earned degrees in political science and law, and practised as a lawyer in British Columbia.

After finishing law school, Dosanjh heard disturbing stories about the mistreatment of farm workers. He decided to take action. Disguising himself as a berry picker, he observed the verbal abuse and poor working conditions firsthand. Together with friends, he became a labour activist helping farm workers with wage claims and other job-related issues.

Ujjal Dosanjh was first elected as Member of the Legislative Assembly for British Columbia in 1991. He was appointed government services minister and later, attorney general, responsible for multiculturalism, human rights, and immigration. As attorney general, he took bold steps against crime and injustice. He brought in tough enforcement measures to promote children's rights, to



fight racism and hate crimes, and to reduce violence against women and children. He also launched new ways to resolve civil and family disputes through mediation. Other measures provided new protection for consumers, including homebuyers.

In politics, he earned a reputation for integrity and steady-handed administration. Glen Clark, the previous premier, resigned under allegations of corruption. Dosanjh stated: "Let me say to the voters of British Columbia, I want you to

know that I have listened to you and I have learned from you about our government's short-comings." Many British Columbians welcomed Ujjal Dosanjh's rise to leader and premier. Newspaper reports recalled that the Asian community had not received voting rights in Canada until 1947. Many believed Dosanjh's elevation to the premiership signalled a new chapter in Canada's multicultural history.

- 1. Dosanjh is quoted as saying, "I am proud to be part of the only government in Canada that has not reduced its financial commitment to education. My father was a teacher and I learned at an early age that access to education is the great social equalizer." How is education a social equalizer?
- 2. Why is Dosanjh's rise to premier of British Columbia significant?

ciation took out ads in every major western newspaper with a headline that announced: "The West Wants In!" A meeting was organized for May 1987 in Vancouver, where delegates first drew up the political platform for the Reform party of Canada.

During the 1990s, other events fanned the flames of western alienation. In 1992, the federal government announced it intended to replace human lighthouse keepers along the BC coast with automated lights and foghorns. The government thought it could save \$6.8 million a year by this plan. In a province where an estimated one-third of the population uses the water regularly for business or pleasure, the proposal caused concern for marine safety.

But the lighthouses did not employ nearly as many people as the fishing industry. In 1997, the "salmon wars" with fishers from the US left people in the BC salmon industry feeling they had been sold out by the federal government for the sake of good relations with the US. Both of these issues became symbols of what British Columbians thought was the federal government's indifference to their province.

At the height of the furor, BC Senator Pat Carney said that people in BC had to "rethink what we want from Confederation because the current arrangement is not meeting our needs and the fish war proves that." When a reporter asked Senator Carney if "rethinking" meant considering separation from Canada, she refused to rule out that option.

Commentators in Ontario and eastern Canada were outraged by Carney's remarks. But people in BC supported her by a margin of seven to one. This was only one of many indications that, at the turn of the millennium, regional issues were leading some Canadians to rethink their attachment to Confederation.

The National Debt/ National Surplus

For many years, Ottawa spent more than it took in. This wasn't always the case. The federal budget was balanced from the 1930s to the 1960s. In the 1970s, new social programs such as unemployment insurance, pensions indexed to inflation, health care, regional development, housing, and foreign aid were introduced. Most Canadians supported these programs. Instead of paying for them by raising taxes, the government ran deficits to pay for the programs. A **deficit** is the amount by which spending exceeds income each year.

As government spending grew, deficits rose and the federal debt ballooned. The debt is the accumulation of annual deficits into the total amount owed. The Canadian Chamber of Commerce estimated that in the early 1990s, the federal debt was rising by \$76 million a day! When the provinces' debts were added to what Ottawa owed, the total government debt in Canada reached \$661 billion in March 1994. Under the Mulroney government, one out of every three tax dollars went to paying interest on the federal debt. This amount was larger than federal spending on health care, pensions, social assistance, and family allowances combined.

Prime Minister Mulroney argued that, due to the size of the debt, Canada could no longer afford to pay well-off Canadians pensions or child allowance payments. The government started to tax back social assistance benefits. In 1992, family allowance benefits were replaced with a supplement for low-income families. Many Canadians were unhappy with funding cuts to families, pensioners, and unemployed workers, especially in a time of high unemployment.

The Liberals, under Prime Minister Chrétien, came to power in 1993 with a

promise to reduce the federal deficit. Finance Minister Paul Martin's plan was to count on moderate economic growth to reduce the deficit gradually. Martin hoped that economic growth would create jobs, particularly in small businesses. New jobs would mean that more people were paying taxes, and there would be increased revenue for the government. At the same time, the Liberals promised to protect Canada's social programs. Health care and a welfare system that ensure a minimum standard of living for all Canadians were seen as part of Canadians' birthright.

What happened in practice, however, was not that gentle. A 3 per cent general tax increase was brought in to fight the deficit, and a 5 per cent tax increase was levied on better-off citizens. Martin also introduced spending cuts. Over five years, \$7 billion was slashed from the Department of National Defence, and 16 500 military and civilian jobs disappeared as bases closed. Unemployment insurance spending was reduced and benefits were lowered. A number of tax loopholes were plugged. The federal government also downloaded costs to other levels of government by sharply reducing transfer payments to provincial governments.

Many Canadians believed that in order to reach a balanced budget, the government's spending cuts went too far and too deep. In health care, for example, funding slashes pushed the system into crisis. In 1999 public opinion polls, Canadians identified "health, education, and social services" as their number one concern. This issue replaced "unemployment and the economy," which had dominated public attention year after year since 1990.

Despite criticisms of their policy, by 1998 the Liberals had performed a historic feat. They introduced the first balanced budget in 29 years. In five years, from a \$42 billion deficit in 1993, the deficit had been

reduced to zero. The federal budget actually recorded a surplus of \$3.5 billion. Most of the money was used to pay down the national debt. The massive \$583 billion national debt decreased by \$3 billion, its first downward turn in 29 years.

Finance Minister Martin said the government would continue to use most of the budget surplus to pay down the national debt. Some new money was poured into education in 1998. A portion of the 1999 surplus was used to give the health care system a cash transfusion.

In 2000, Martin introduced a budget that included tax cuts, increased funds for the child tax benefit, and more money for university research, the military, roads, and other infrastructure projects. Many Canadians still felt, however, that not enough had been done to deal with the crisis in the health care system. Homelessness and poverty were still major problems.

All of these problems needed to be addressed. What was required, critics said, was a comprehensive program of repair.



In the 1990s, people with disabilities could enjoy a variety of independent activities. But many Canadians became concerned that cuts to social services could jeopardize some basic values of Canadian society.



Developing Skills: Sampling Public Opinion

An opinion survey is an excellent way to discover what people think about an issue. Governments often use polls to decide when to call an election or how to proceed on a sensitive issue such as capital punishment.

Polls are not completely reliable. They indicate only what people feel at the exact time they are asked the questions. Sometimes people give answers that do not reflect what they really think. The pollster must always consider a margin for error. If the poll sample is large enough, however, the poll will be fairly accurate. Official polls are usually accurate within four percentage points either way.

How could you prepare an effective opinion survey?

Step 1

Decide what information you wish to collect. Suppose you want to discover what Canadians feel about the chances of Quebec separating from the rest of Canada, for example.

Step 2

Decide on your target audience and how large a group you want to survey. Consider this step carefully. In some cases, you might target specific groups or communities. For example, if you wanted to gauge the popularity of your student council, you would restrict your sample to students and teachers in your school. For the Quebec separation issue, you will want a broader but still manageable sample, perhaps including friends and family.

Step 3

Prepare your questions. Make sure:

- they will give you the information you are searching for
- the wording is clear, simple, and precise
- they are worded so that they do not offend or discriminate against anyone (based on race, religion, or gender)
- they do not "tip" the answer in one direction.

Step 4

Most opinion surveys use closed questions since they are the simplest to analyze. A closed question gives the survey participants the answers and asks them to choose one. For example:

Do you think Quebec will separate from the rest of Canada?

Yes No No Opinion

If only presented with the options "yes" or "no," participants might choose one of them even though they do not have an opinion. The third option (don't know, don't care, or no opinion) will make your survey more accurate. If the vast majority of respondents express "no opinion," you will know that the question is a not an issue.

Step 5

Test your survey to make sure there are no problems. Ask several friends to answer the questions. Are the test questions too complicated? Is the survey too long?

Step 6

Prepare your final draft. Pay attention to its overall appearance. It should be typed neatly and be well spaced on the page. Directions should be clear.

Step 7

Conduct your opinion survey and tabulate your results. Transfer the information from all answer sheets onto a single tally sheet. Double-check your results. Accuracy is important.

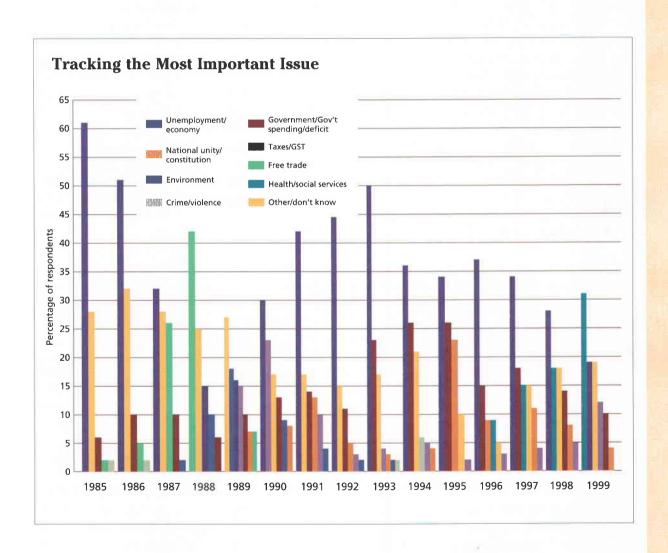
Step 8

Prepare a summary report that clearly presents your survey results. Your report should state the purpose of the survey, identify your target audience, and note the size of your sample. Include a copy of the questionnaire with the results. Consider using graphs or tables to show the results and try preparing them on computer. Also, state your conclusion and comment on the value of the survey.

Apply Your Knowledge

- 1. Conduct a poll on a recent issue, such as Quebec separation, a common Canadian-US currency, or an environmental issue.
- 2. Each year, *Maclean's* magazine publishes a poll indicating what Canadians feel is the most important issue facing the country. Results since 1985 are shown in the graph below.
- a) Which issue has been rated as most important most often? Suggest why.

- b) Track the issue of national unity between 1993 and 1996. Suggest why national unity became more important in 1995.
- c) Track the issue of government spending/deficit from 1994 to 1999. What happened to this issue? Suggest why. What issue took its place in peoples' minds? Why?
- d) Update this poll by conducting your own sampling of public opinion. Present your results in a similar bar graph. You may wish to suggest other issues to add to the *Maclean's* list.



Federal Finance
Minister Paul Martin
with high school
students in 1999. The
students gave Martin
suggestions for
what to do with the
federal surplus.



Finance Minister Martin was challenged to set out a plan for putting more money back into Canadian society. Medicare, education, and social assistance for the poorest in society would be the place to start. This would restore public confidence in government by giving Canadians greater value for the taxes they pay. As one newspaper editor reminded readers, "Despite the public austerity of recent years, Canada is still a rich nation, one that can afford a sense of public purpose. To sacrifice that, would be to lose something far more valuable than cash."

Aboriginal Rights and Land Claims

The 1990s was an important decade for Aboriginal nations. The decade began with the standoff at Oka and ended with the birth of an Inuit homeland, the new territory of Nunavut. Along the way, there were landmark treaty signings, a Royal Commission Report, and a Statement of Reconciliation from the federal government.

The Standoff at Oka

"We are prepared to fight ... and, if necessary, to die ... in defence of our land." With these words in the summer of 1990, a small band of Mohawks announced they had had enough. The town council of

Oka, Quebec, wished to expand the golf course. The land they wanted was the ancestral burial grounds considered sacred to the Mohawk people. The courts had rejected the Mohawks' claim to the land. The Mohawks decided not to stand by and allow the land to be taken. They erected a barricade across the road and a 78-day armed standoff began.

On 10 July 1990, about a hundred Quebec provincial police attempted to break through the barricade, which was guarded mostly by women and children. Mohawk men, armed with rifles, were off to the side in the woods. Police wore gas masks and carried assault rifles. Overhead a police helicopter hovered, attempting to spot the Mohawks in the brush. A few minutes before 9:00 a.m., an armed conflict broke out. Hundreds of rounds were fired, bullets coming from both sides. A 31-year-old police officer was hit and later died.

The Oka standoff brought the concerns of Aboriginal peoples to the fore-front of national and international attention. Across Canada and internationally, news reports focussed on the events unfolding at Oka. Thirty kilometres to the southeast, the Mohawks of the Kahnawake Reserve were outraged at the police raid on the people at Oka.

In support, the Kahnawake blocked all roads into the reserve. These roads included two major highways as well as the southern tip of the Mercier bridge. The bridge was a vital link between the island of Montreal and several heavily populated suburbs on the south shore of the St. Lawrence River. The Kahnawake Mohawks warned: "We'll bring down the bridge if there is another police assault at Oka."

More than a hundred chiefs gathered from across Canada at Kahnawake to discuss solidarity with the Mohawks. They warned the federal government that they would not stand by and watch the Mohawks be assaulted. One chief said his people would bring down the power lines into Edmonton if the police moved against the Mohawks. Others suggested they would block more highways or rail lines. The chiefs called on the international community to condemn Canada for its handling of the crisis. They asked the United Nations to investigate the Mohawks' complaints that their civil and human rights were being violated.



A Mohawk and a Canadian soldier stand face-to-face during the confrontation at Oka in 1990.

Contemporary Milestones for Aboriginal Nations

- 1982 Aboriginal and treaty rights are enshrined in the constitution through the Charter of Rights and Freedoms.

 Assembly of First Nations is established, representing status and treaty First Nations in Canada. Its goal is to develop strategies for economic development, housing, health, education, land claims, treaty rights, and self-government.
- **1983** Métis National Council is founded to represent Métis of Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and Alberta who see themselves as distinct from non-status and Métis people in other parts of the country because of their traditional historic roots in the region.
- **1984** An amendment to the Charter of Rights and Freedoms confirms Aboriginal peoples' rights through land claims agreements past or future, and guarantees all rights equally to men and women. Any changes to Aboriginal rights in the Charter must be discussed at a First Ministers Conference with representatives of Aboriginal peoples.
- **1985** Indian Act is changed so that women who lost their status by marrying a non-Aboriginal man regain their status; bands have the right to determine their own membership.
- **1987** Elijah Harper blocks the Meech Lake Accord because it does not recognize Aboriginal nations as distinct societies and did not include Aboriginal nations in the constitutional talks.
- 1993 National Aboriginal Awards are established.
 A United Nations group drafts a Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples.
- **1994** Aboriginal bands in Manitoba sign a self-government agreement which includes dismantling the Department of Indian Affairs in the province and transfering power and funds to the bands.
- **1995** United Nations proclaims 1995 to 2004 the International Decade of the World's Indigenous Peoples and urges governments around the world to address the concerns of indigenous populations.
- 1996 June 21 officially becomes National Aboriginal Day in Canada.
- 1997 Royal Commission on Aboriginal Peoples' report is released.
 - A landmark Supreme Court ruling states that Aboriginal communities have rights to unoccupied traditional lands and traditional oral evidence may be used in determining land ownership.
- **1998** Canadian government issues Statement of Reconciliation to Aboriginal peoples. Nisga'a Treaty is signed.
- 1999 Nunavut officially becomes a new territory of Canada.

Meanwhile, no progress was made toward a negotiated settlement. Early in August 1990, Prime Minister Mulroney announced that the Canadian armed forces would be sent to Oka and Kahnawake. They would replace the Quebec police. The decision to send in the army came at the request of Quebec Premier Bourassa.

Approximately 4400 soldiers were moved into Oka and Kahnawake. The troops were backed by armoured personnel carriers and heavy weapons. Military officials said the mission was to remove the barricades peacefully. After tense negotiations, the barricades came down on the Mercier bridge. During the following weeks, negotiations continued. Finally, on 26 September, the 11-week standoff ended.

Most of the Mohawks considered that they had been successful in achieving their goal. The sacred burial grounds had been saved from the developers. As important, the issue of Aboriginal rights had been put before the world through the media. But Aboriginal peoples in Canada warned that there would be more Okas unless Canada respected their land claims and other rights. In 1997, the federal government purchased the disputed land from the town of Oka and returned it to the Mohawk community.

Ipperwash

Another confrontation over land rights took place in Ontario in 1995. In that year,

Aboriginal protestors behind a barricade near the entrance to Ipperwash Provincial Park. Why did the federal government believe the Kettle and Stoney Point Band had a "legitimate grievance"? members of the Kettle and Stoney Point Band occupied the Canadian Forces base at Ipperwash near Sarnia, Ontario. The base had been built on land taken from a reserve in 1942. Twelve families had been moved off the land and their homes had been destroyed. In 1972, Jean Chrétien was Indian Affairs Minister. He said the band had a "legitimate grievance" and recommended returning the land to the band. Department of Defence officials noted the land had been used extensively for weapons testing and said a clean-up could cost up to \$30 million. The government took no further action.

After protestors occupied the base in 1995, armed forces personnel withdrew. Two months later, the band members also moved into nearby Ipperwash Provincial Park. The park contained an ancient burial ground. The protestors were unarmed and they had waited until after Labour Day, the traditional end of the summer camping season, to occupy the park.

In the past, the policy of the Ontario Provincial Police (OPP) had been to avoid force in confrontations with protestors. At Ipperwash, however, Cecil George, an unarmed Aboriginal counsellor, was beaten unconscious by the police. Dudley George, also unarmed, was shot dead. A cousin of George, Nick Cattrel, was shot in the back. In a criminal trial two years later, a judge convicted an OPP officer of manslaughter in George's death and gave him a suspended sentence.

Despite demands from Dudley George's family and members of the press, the Ontario government did not call an inquiry into his death. The George family filed a lawsuit against Ontario. They alleged that government officials had ordered the police to clear the protestors out of the park by whatever means necessary, and so bore some responsibility for George's death. The suit was filed in June

1999, but by February 2000 had still not gone to trial.

In 1998, the federal government signed an agreement in principle returning the land occupied by the military base to the band. The agreement also gave the band \$26 million for damages suffered.

The Royal Commission on Aboriginal Peoples

Largely in response to the Oka crisis, the federal government established a **Royal Commission on Aboriginal Peoples (RCAP)** in 1990. The commission had two main purposes:

- to outline practical solutions for Aboriginal self-government
- to recommend compensation packages for past abuses.

The RCAP's report took six years to compile and contained more than 400 recommendations. These included spending more than \$30 billion over 15 years in compensation packages and self-government initiatives.

Self-government means that Aboriginal peoples would have control over matters such as their own education, resource development, social services, justice system, and health care. Some Aboriginal peoples have already gained a degree of self-government. The RCAP report made a number of other recommendations, some controversial. These included setting up a House of First Peoples as an Aboriginal parliament equal to the federal and provincial governments, granting Aboriginal peoples dual citizenship (with Canada and with one First Nation), and funding self-government initiatives by taxing Aboriginal peoples along with contributions from other Canadian governments. None of these recommendations had been implemented by 2000, but Aboriginal peoples continue to take steps toward achieving self-government throughout Canada.

The Statement of Reconciliation 1998

In 1998, the federal government issued a **Statement of Reconciliation** to Aboriginal peoples. In its most basic sense, the statement was an apology. It expressed the government's sorrow for policies dating back to before Confederation. These included policies that tried to stamp out Aboriginal cultural practices such as the Potlatch and the Sun Dance. The government also apologized for taking Aboriginal children from their families and confining them in residential schools.

Indian Affairs Minister Jane Stewart delivered the Statement of Reconciliation at a ceremony that began with traditional drumming and dancing. First she read the statement, then handed it in a scroll to Aboriginal leaders representing five different organizations. The statement read in part: "The Government of Canada recognizes that policies that sought to assimilate Aboriginal people, women and men, are not the way to build a strong country." Stewart also pledged a total of \$600 million for various self-help programs, including a \$250-million healing fund for people who had suffered mental and physical abuse while at residential schools.

Phil Fontaine, Grand Chief of the Assembly of First Nations, welcomed the Statement and the pledge of financial assistance. "For the first time in history," he



Holding a ceremonial eagle feather, Indian Affairs Minister Jane Stewart shakes hands with Aboriginal leader Phil Fontaine. Stewart had just finished reading a Statement of Reconciliation from the Canadian government to Aboriginal peoples.





IMPACT ON SOCIETY

THE CREATION OF NUNAVUT

At the stroke of midnight on 1 April 1999, the map of Canada was redrawn. As a massive fireworks display lit up the sky over Iqaluit, the new territory of **Nunavut** came into being. Nunavut means "our land" in Inuktitut, the language of the Inuit. The new territory was carved from the eastern half of the Northwest Territories and extends for more than 2 million km². It is four times the size of France.

In contrast to its vast extent, Nunavut has a relatively small population. Even though it is two times bigger than Ontario, its population of 25 000 is 2.5 per cent the size of Ontario's population. But the significance of Nunavut goes beyond the size of its population. The creation of the new territory gives the Inuit of the eastern Arctic, who make up more than 85 per cent of Nunavut's population, a self-governing homeland.

Inuit in the Northwest Territories had been lobbying for a land claims settlement and self-government since the early 1970s. It was then that oil, gas, and mineral companies from the South began exploring in the area. Two organizations, the Inuit Tapirisat of Canada and the Tungavik Federation of Nunavik, led the campaign. In May 1992, 52 per cent of voters in the Northwest Territories accepted an agreement reached with the Canadian government to split the Northwest Territories in two.

Nunavut makes up a fifth of Canada's land area and has been called the largest peaceful land settlement in history. The Inuit received title to 350 000 km² and \$1.15 billion over 14 years. In return, they renounced their claim to another 1.6 million km² of land. They have hunting, trapping, and fishing rights over all of Nunavut. They also receive a share of federal royalties from resource development in the ter-

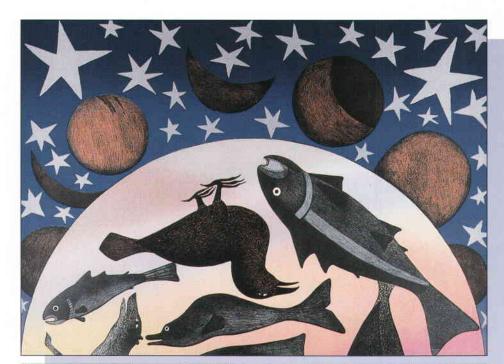


ritory. Nunavut has its own democratically elected Legislative Assembly.

At the ceremony marking the creation of Nunavut, government leader Paul Okalik called for a moment of silence to remember those who have "committed suicide, those lost on the land pursuing a traditional lifestyle, and those who have fallen victim to abuse." No one denies the government has some major problems to solve. The territory has an unemployment rate of 22 per cent, more than twice the national average.

Still, there is a feeling of optimism in the new territory, a feeling that even the most serious problems can be overcome with cooperation and patience. As Paul Okalik remarked, "We the people of Nunavut have regained control of our own destiny."

- 1. Why is the creation of Nunavut an important settlement for the Inuit?
- Do you think similar land settlements can be made in other areas of Canada? What challenges might there be? Explain.



Silavut, Nunavut (Our Environment, Our Land) by Inuit artist Kenojuak Ashevak created to commemorate the inauguration of Nunavut.



- 1. How does this artwork illustrate the Inuit view of the land?
- 2. This work is a diptych—a pair of thematically linked prints. Why do you think the artist chose to present this piece as a diptych? What is the unifying theme?

said, "this government has accepted that Canada cannot achieve its full potential" without the cooperation of the Aboriginal peoples.

The Nisga'a Treaty

On 4 August 1998, representatives of the Nisga'a nation and the federal and British Columbia governments signed a historic agreement. The **Nisga'a Treaty** was the first land claims settlement made west of the Rockies since 1871. Not only did it grant the Nisga'a a large area of land and a financial settlement, it also established a new model of Aboriginal self-government. Specifically, the treaty granted the Nisga'a:

- 2019 km² of land in the Nass River valley in northwestern BC
- \$253 million over 15 years
- the right to local self-government and control over natural resources in the treaty area
- the right to own property in their own villages for the first time since 1871
- an increased share of the coastal salmon fishery.

The treaty gave the 2500 Nisga'a living in the newly created area the right to local self-government. This means they have control over education and other public services in their communities. The Canadian Criminal Code and the Charter of Rights and Freedoms apply in Nisga'a territory. All the laws of Canada and BC also still apply to the Nisga'a, except in those cases where there is a conflict with the treaty. Then the treaty applies.

Political Activism: War Crimes

Canada played an important part in defeating Nazi Germany in World War II. But after the war, a number of Nazis and former Nazis immigrated to Canada. During the Cold War, the government placed more emphasis on keeping communists rather than Nazis out of the country. Former Nazis, including members of Hitler's SS, entered Canada. Some hid their past. In many cases, no attention was paid to their wartime activities.

Jewish organizations and other groups persistently alleged that war criminals were living in Canada. Forty years after the end of World War II, in response to these charges, the government set up a commission of inquiry on war criminals. It was headed by Jules Deschenes, chief justice of the Quebec Superior Court.

As a result of the Deschenes Inquiry, changes were made to the Criminal Code of Canada. Courts were granted the powers to try war crimes and crimes against humanity. A **war crime** is an act committed during an international armed conflict (e.g., World War II) that violates the international laws of war. **Crimes against humanity** include murder, extermination, enslavement, deportation, persecution, or any other inhumane act committed against a civilian population or any identifiable group.

Changes were also made in 1987 to the Citizenship and Immigration Act. These changes were meant to prevent others suspected of war crimes or crimes against humanity from remaining in Canada or gaining Canadian citizenship.

After 1987, four men suspected of war crimes were charged under the Criminal Code, but no convictions were secured. There were no further prosecutions because witnesses were unavailable or because the accused were too sick or old to stand trial. Two men were stripped of their Canadian citizenship and deported. Two others agreed to leave the country voluntarily. Another alleged war criminal, in Canada as a visitor, was deported to Australia in 1997.





SPOTLIGHT ON ...

Mendel Good

All that is left of Mendel Good's family is a picture frame containing nine black-and-white photographs. His family all perished in Nazi concentration camps.

Mendel Good was a Polish Jewish boy of 14 when he was taken to Plaszov concentration camp. During the war, he was

moved six times but he survived. In 1945, he was liberated from a camp in Austria by American soldiers. Canadians liberated his future wife from Bergen-Belsen concentration camp.

Good spent three years after the war looking for relatives, but he was the only survivor. When he realized his relatives were all dead, he decided to move to Canada to start a new life. "Canada gave me a chance at a life," he says.

On Remembrance Day, Mendel Good can be found speaking to students about freedom and lib-



erty, the concentration camps, and the war. He believes that, "In reality, no one can appreciate freedom and liberty more than a Holocaust survivor." He tells them, "We have to learn about the past if we want to have a better future."

Once while participating

in a phone-in show on CBC radio, Mendel Good was heckled. A caller claimed that the Holocaust was an elaborate hoax and went on to cite statistics to try and prove his point. Mendel Good's response was only one sentence. He said to the caller, "I wish you were right, because then my children would have someone to call grandmother and grandfather."

1. How might Mendel Good respond to the fact that suspected war criminals are in Canada? Why?

In 1995, 10 years after the Deschenes Inquiry, the issue was still controversial. Rallies were held across Canada. The message of the rallies was clear: suspected Nazi war criminals living in Canada should no longer be given a safe haven. The protest followed the disclosure that there were hundreds of suspected Nazis living in Canada. At that time, the Justice Department's war crimes unit had an inventory of 1571 suspected World War II war criminals, 890 of them involving files that had been closed.

Jewish organizations and others continued to bring forward new names of alleged war criminals for investigation. In

1998, the federal government set out \$50 million in funding to strengthen the war crimes unit. With added staff, new investigations were begun. The government pledged to follow through on its commitment to end Canada's status as a haven for war criminals.

The Justice Department currently follows a policy of denaturalization (loss of citizenship) and deportation for suspected Nazi war criminals who hid their past when they entered Canada. It is believed that this is the best solution, since their age makes it impractical to start these cases again. However, there is no guarantee that they will face prosecution in

other countries once they are deported.

In October 1997, it was reported that there were also more than 300 suspected modern-day war criminals living in Canada. These individuals have been accused of participating in atrocities in Rwanda, Ethiopia, Yugoslavia, and other countries. Some of these suspected war criminals have been deported and the government has pledged to seek out and expel others. Experts urged immigration officials to do a better job of screening out war criminals before they were allowed into Canada.



In the year 2000, women held two very influential positions in the Canadian government. Adrienne Clarkson was governor general of Canada, and Beverley McLachlin was chief justice of the Supreme Court. Clarkson was the second woman to be named governor general. Jeanne Sauvé had been appointed to that post in 1984. McLachlin, however, was the first woman to be named chief justice. In fact, it was only in 1982 that Bertha Wilson made history as the first woman appointed to the Supreme Court.

Canada achieved another milestone with its first woman prime minister, when Kim Campbell was named to replace Brian Mulroney after his resignation in 1993. Astronaut Roberta Bondar became Canada's first woman in space in 1992.

The achievements of these four women generated a lot of publicity because their positions were so high profile. But what gains had women made in other areas?

The results of the 1997 federal election, in which women won 21 per cent of the seats in the House of Commons, indicated they still had a long way to go to achieve equality in politics. Still, this

showed progress over the election of 1993, when women held only 18 per cent of the seats in the House.

In the workplace, a similar trend was evident. Research reports done in the late 1990s by a consulting firm called the Catalyst Foundation indicated that:

- in 1998, women made up 45 per cent of the Canadian labour force, up from 33 per cent in 1977
- in 1997, women made up 43 per cent of all managers and administrators in Canadian firms, up from 29 per cent in 1982
- in a survey of *Financial Post* 500 firms, generally regarded as the top companies in Canada, Catalyst found that only 6 per cent of the seats on corporate boards were held by women
- of these top 500 companies, only 13 companies, or 2 per cent of the total, had a woman as their chief executive.

These figures indicate that a problem known as the **glass ceiling** still exists for women in the Canadian workplace. More women are entering the job market and more are being promoted to middle management positions. Very few, however, are taking that last step into the top management of large firms. It is as if an invisible barrier or "glass ceiling" prevents them from going any higher.

In 1999, Canadian women won a major victory in the area of pay equity. The Federal Court of Canada ordered the government to comply with a Human Rights Tribunal's 1998 judgement. This judgement awarded salary adjustments to about 200 000 federal civil servants, the majority of whom were women. In most cases, the adjustments amounted to a little less than \$2000 for every year of government service. The total cost of the settlements could be anywhere from \$3.5 billion to \$5 billion, the largest such settlement in Canadian history.

The Human Rights Tribunal responsible for this landmark decision was ruling on a complaint first filed with the Canadian Human Rights Commission in 1984. At that time, a group of federal clerks and other employees complained that salaries of civil servants working at jobs traditionally held by women were not in line with those for similar jobs traditionally held by men. This, they said, violated Canada's

Human Rights Law, which stated that women and men should receive "equal pay for work of equal value."

Twenty years after the law was originally passed, the Human Rights Tribunal and the Federal Court agreed. After the Federal Court's ruling, the Chrétien government said it would begin negotiations with its employees' largest union, the Public Service Alliance of Canada, for a final settlement.





SPOTLIGHT ON ...

Three Prominent Women

Beverley McLachlin

Canada's first female Chief Justice was sworn into office on 17 January 2000. Dressed in her court robes, Beverley McLachlin addressed dignitaries, family, and friends. She spoke of the value Canadians place on fairness as the primary reason for her appointment. Canada is a country, she said, where a person could rise from a family without money or connections to become the country's top judge.

Beverley McLachlin described a childhood of financial struggle on an Alberta farm near Pincher Creek. She went to law school at the University of Alberta and practised law in Vancouver at a time when there were few women judges. "But," she said, "there was an increasing awareness that fairness required equal opportunities for women and that the law must work to ensure this." She was appointed as a judge in British Columbia and rose to be the chief justice of the BC Supreme Court in 1988.

Prime Minister Mulroney appointed Beverley McLachlin one of the nine judges on the Supreme



Court of Canada in 1989. During her time on the bench, she earned a reputation as a thoughtful judge not afraid of supporting controversial rulings. In 1999, she gained the position of chief justice.

Her appointment came at a time when the Supreme Court was finding itself increasingly enmeshed in controversy. Some complained that the court was tampering in areas that should be left to elected legislators. For example, some Albertans

protested the court's decision to write protection of gays and lesbians into the province's human rights code. On the East Coast, fishers protested a court ruling that allowed Aboriginal bands unrestricted fishing rights.

Chief Justice McLachlin pledged to run a court that would debate and discuss issues widely before making judgements. She promised that the court would remember that its decisions "do not stand in abstraction from society." "Judges' decisions," she said, "affect real people in real life. They have consequences."

Susan Aglukark

Susan Aglukark is the first Inuit performer to sign with a major recording label. Her debut album for EMI won her two Juno Awards and sold more than 300 000 copies in Canada. She was the winner of the first Aboriginal Achievement Award in



the Arts and Entertainment field in 1994.

Susan Aglukark's life has been full of challenges. Raised in various Inuit communities where her father was a pastor, she became personally aware of the problems young people in the North face. She lost many friends and relatives to suicide, drugs, and alcoholism. These events left a lasting impression. Susan has worked as a National Spokesperson for the Aboriginal Division of the National Alcohol and Drug Prevention Program. While her songs revive and celebrate traditional rituals and values, they also often touch on the social realities of life in the North, including youth suicide and racial prejudice.

CBC radio recorded Aglukark's first album, which made her an overnight success in the Arctic. This brought her to the attention of Much Music officials, who recognized her extraordinary talent. Her first album on a major label, *This Child*, was recorded in both English and Inuktitut. The recording melds Inuit chants and a number of instruments including traditional drums, electronic synthesizers, and a string quartet.

Unsung Heroes, 1998, is a mix of pop music and sounds that reflect Aglulark's roots. The songs are about her people. "Never Be the Same" tells about Inuit patients, suffering from tuberculosis, who were taken from their communities by plane to urban hospitals to die far away from home. "E-186" is about a 1930s government policy that assigned numbered dog tags to the Inuit people.

The song features the repeated refrain "Naasautaa" meaning in Inuktitut "Your Number Is." "Turn of the Century" celebrates the formation of the new territory of Nunavut.

Susan Aglukark has moved to Toronto, but often returns to the North to visit and perform. She says, "I will never forget my people, or my roots. But the best way to honour them is to make the best music I can."

Beverly Mascoll

In August 1998, Beverly Mascoll was named to the Order of Canada. At the ceremony, she received the honour alongside former Prime Minister Brian Mulroney, hockey player Maurice (Rocket) Richard, and



musician Bryan Adams. The Order of Canada recognized Mascoll as an outstanding entrepreneur and leader in the Black community.

Born and raised in Nova Scotia, Beverly Mascoll moved to Toronto in 1955. In 1970, with only \$700, she started her own cosmetics supply company after recognizing there was a need in the Canadian marketplace. At first, she sold her products from the trunk of her car. Today, she runs a multi-million dollar company.

Over the years, Beverly Mascoll has shared her success, volunteering both time and money. She established a foundation in her name to provide scholarships for promising young people to help them "reach their full potential." She has also supported Camp Jumoke. This facility is for children living with sickle cell anemia, an inherited disease that often strikes people of Afro-Caribbean descent. The disease affects the red blood cells, and symptoms include agonizing episodes triggered by cold temperatures. People with the illness can also suffer strokes and infections leading

to lung problems. The Mascoll Foundation has raised thousands of dollars for this project.

Beverly Mascoll is a recognized leader in the Black community and Canadian society. She is a member of the Ontario Black History Society, served as a trustee for the Harry Jerome Scholarship, and was co-chair of Toronto's fund raising campaign for the James Robinson Johnston Chair in Black Canadian Studies at Dalhousie University in Nova Scotia. She has been a director at the Ontario Science Centre and a member of the Board of Governors of the University of Guelph. When she was in her 50s, she enrolled in Women's Studies at York University. "

Besides the Order of Canada, Beverly Mascoll has received other honours and recognition for her contributions to the community. These include the YWCA Women of Distinction Award for Entrepreneurship and the Canadian Council of Christians and Jews Human Relations Award.

- 1. In what ways do the achievements of these women indicate a step toward equality of opportunity for women and for all Canadians?
- 2. Do research for an Honour Roll of Canadian Women in the New Millennium. These would be women who have made significant contributions to Canadian society and they would come from many different fields and occupations (arts, science, politics, media, business, social work, etc.). Decide on criteria for your Honour Roll and then prepare profiles of your selections. Display them in your classroom or create a special magazine feature on these women.

Activities

Understand Facts and Concepts

1. Add these new terms to your Factfile.

sick building syndrome

ergonomics

telecommuting

knowledge workers

Moore's Law brain drain

floating exchange rate

currency crisis

western alienation

deficit

debt

Royal Commission on Aboriginal Peoples

Statement of Reconciliation

Nunavut

Nisga'a Treaty

war crime

crime against humanity

glass ceiling

- 2. Using a web diagram, outline the ways telecommunications technology is changing the workplace.
- 3. What were the reasons for the increase in the national debt after 1970?
- 4. Why did the Atlantic and western provinces feel alienated by the federal government in the 1980s and 1990s? Outline their concerns in a chart.

- 5. Describe one major advance in Aboriginal self-government in the 1990s.
- 6. a) Why was the Deschenes Inquiry set up?
 - b) What changes were made as a result of the inquiry?

Think and Communicate

7. a) Compare work in the industrial era to work in the post-industrial era or "Information Age." Use a comparison organizer in your answer. Start with a chart like the one below, but add other criteria. Interview people in a variety of different jobs to help you complete the section of the chart on the Information Age.

Criteria	Work in the Industrial Era	Work in the Information Age
Physical workplace (building design and layout, etc.)		
Mobility of workers		
Types of job skills		

- b) Summarize advantages and disadvantages of the changes.
- 8. Outline the main strategies the federal Liberal government used to reduce the deficit. In groups, discuss the advantages and disadvantages of each strategy. Then rank Paul Martin's strategies from most to least successful.
- 9. a) "Over the past decade, Ottawa has littered the path to a deficit-free Canada with spending cuts that have damaged the foundations on which this nation rests." Present three arguments to support this statement and three arguments against it.
 - b) What is your view? Why?
- 10. a) Discuss how war criminals got into Canada.
 - b) Why did successive governments not take any action on the issue?
 - c) As a result of the Deschenes Inquiry, what actions have been taken? What still needs to be done? Why?
 - d) Why is this an issue for all Canadians?
- 11. In your own words, define the meaning of the term "glass ceiling." Does the glass ceiling hamper Canadian women in achieving political or economic goals? Defend your position.
- 12. Role play, in groups, the following situations for your class. Decide on and assign appropriate roles. Do some background research to prepare for your roles. Also, decide on the issues that will be presented beforehand. After the role play, answer questions and lead a class discussion on your topic.

- a) a group of students talking about whether or not to look for jobs in the United States
- b) a group of Canadian bankers, business people, nationalists, government officials, and citizens thrashing out the issue of sharing a common currency with the United States
- c) labour union officials and workers discussing the threat caused by technological advances and global competition
- d) a group of Canadians from the West and the Atlantic region expressing why they feel alienated from Central Canada and Ottawa

Apply Your Knowledge

- 13. Follow stories in the press about feelings of alienation in the West, Quebec, or the Atlantic region. Clip articles related to the issue over a period of time. From the articles, decide on the legitimacy of the concerns. Also, talk in person or over the Internet to people from those regions of Canada about how they feel toward the government in Ottawa. Report to the class on what you find.
- 14. Investigate a current Aboriginal land claim. Present your findings to the class using maps and other visual aids. Lead a discussion about how this particular claim should be honoured.
- 15. Plan a field trip to the Holocaust Education and Memorial Centre located in Toronto, 4600 Bathurst Street (telephone 416–635-2883, ext. 153). Visitors view audio-visual presentations that portray the experiences of European Jewish people before, during, and after World War II. School groups may arrange to hear the personal testimony of a Holocaust survivor.

Or, take a virtual tour at http://www.bonder.com/march.html. This site records the "March of the Living," a visit to Poland by Canadian Jewish teens to view the concentration camps.

Get to the Source

16. The following quotations express two visions Aboriginal peoples have of their present and future.

The vision for the future is of a dual world—one in which both traditional ways and modern are followed, one in which people are equally skilled in the worlds of business and government and of survival on the land....

- It is a vision of a world in which First Nations people are owners as well as employees, managers as well as users, governors as well as citizens.
- —Kingfisher Lake First Nation, Wunnumin Lake First Nations, Shibogama Interim Planning Board, *Continuity and Change*, 1997.

On an airplane, my Powerbook is singing to me in Lakota, while the words to the song appear onscreen in both Lakota and English.

In the Canadian Rockies, Indians carrying portable computers trudge through a herd of elk and into the Banff Centre for the Arts where the "Drumbeats to Drumbytes" think-tank confronts the reality of on-line life as it affects Native artists ...

Across Canada, thousands of First Nations children network their observations and life experiences into mainstream education, as the Cradleboard Teaching Project—Kids From Kanata partnership provides both Native content and connectivity to schools as far away as Hawaii and Baffin Island.

—Buffy Sainte-Marie, quoted from "CyberSkins: Live and Interactive," 1997.

- a) Describe in your own words how these Aboriginal people see their present and future as a blend of old and new.
- b) How can modern telecommunications technology contribute to the goals of Aboriginal peoples?

Canada and Globalization



*

Land Mine Terror

A young Cambodian boy, Kherm Man So, told his story to a United Nations conference in 1996.

I was blown up in Cambodia in January. I was going to school with two friends when they picked up a land mine and were killed. We didn't know it was a land mine. I was 14 years old and now have only one leg. Why did they just make it easier to make new mines?

Another young American man recounted his terrifying experience.

I was only four years old when Syrian soldiers, retreating during the 1967 Arab—Israeli War, laid land mines in the Golan Heights. A mine waited silently in the ground for 17 years before it exploded under my right foot while I was hiking in an unmarked minefield. I wasn't a soldier. I was a student taking a break to explore the Middle East. There were no fences and



A young Cambodian boy, victim of a land mine.

no signs to keep me out. I was lucky. I had friends with me, and a farmer nearby heard the blast. All the talk about fencing and marking the minefields is a distraction from the real problem: how to stop the proliferation of land mines.

The production of land mines across the globe has reached the crisis stage. More than 110 million **anti-personnel land mines**, or APMs, are currently deployed. Most are found

in the developing world. Five hundred victims are killed or injured each week. Most are innocent civilians; 90 per cent of them are children. Thousands more are terrorized by

the presence of AP mines. Refugees are afraid to return to their homes and farms fearing that land mine traps have been set for them.

- 1. Who are the main victims of land mines?
- 2. What do you think can be done to stop the production and deployment of land mines around the world?

The Fight to Ban Cand Mines

In 1996, 156 countries at the United Nations General Assembly agreed to work for a treaty that would ban AP land mines. Canada was a leader in this international effort. In October 1996, at a conference in Ottawa, Canadian Foreign Affairs Minister Lloyd Axworthy issued a challenge to other nations in the world community. He asked them to work with Canada in preparing the ban treaty. He invited all willing governments to return to Canada in December 1997 to sign it. This was the beginning of

HALO

Princess Diana was one of the prominent individuals who joined the campaign against land mines.
This photograph shows her in 1997 holding a land mine in central Angola.

what was called the **Ottawa Process**. Canada and its partners had to bring together governments of other countries, non-governmental organizations, and international organizations such as the United Nations and the International Red Cross.

Canadian officials knew it was important to take bold action at home if they expected to provide international leadership. Canada had already agreed to stop the production, export, and operational use of land mines. Now Canada began to destroy its stockpile of land mines, except for a small number to be used in training for de-mining programs.

By December 1997, more than 122 countries had signed the land mine treaty. By 2000, however, a large number of governments had not yet ratified or confirmed the treaty, including the United States and several Middle Eastern nations. Without the participation of the US, there is some doubt about the long-term effectiveness of the treaty.

Canada's support of the treaty is mainly through CIDA and humanitarian organizations. Removing mines and providing assistance to their victims are important goals. Canada has provided technical expertise and funding for mine clearance operations in such countries as Angola, Cambodia, Laos, Afghanistan, and Bosnia-Herzegovina. In Afghanistan, Canada

made a unique contribution. Canada was the only country to send women mine specialists to work with refugees. Teams of three women and nine men educated the local people in mine awareness. The Canadian women taught local women and trained them to instruct other women. Since women and children are often the victims of land mines, this contribution was especially appreciated by the Afghani people.

Canada has also provided medical care for victims. Grants have been made to the International Red Cross, so that Canadian prostheticists can train local health care staff to make and fit artificial limbs. Other money has been channelled through organizations such as the Council of Canadians with Disabilities. These groups help victims of land mines learn the skills of independent living.

Canada played a leading role in getting the international community to ban anti-personnel mines. It was an incredible accomplishment in less than 14 months. Axworthy's initiative showed that there are new opportunities for middle powers like Canada now that the Cold War has ended. Canada has an important role to play in influencing international affairs.

S S Globalization

As we have seen, it was a Canadian, Marshall McLuhan, who first coined the phrase "global village." He used the term to describe a world where people who are separated by vast distances could communicate through high-tech communications devices. Computers, the Internet, telephones, television, and radio have made the "global village" a reality. Today, we often refer to this concept as globalization, the idea that the world is becoming one large community with interconnected needs and services. Not

Anti-Personnel Land Mines (APMs): Vital Statistics

- More people have died from APMs than nuclear weapons and poison gas.
- There have been an estimated 1 million casualties since 1975.
- There are 250 000 land mine amputees worldwide.
- APMs cost \$3-\$30 to buy and \$300-\$1000 to remove.
- APMs can remain active for up to 100 years.

Source: Canadian International Development Agency.

only are Canadians linked through technology with people from different countries on a daily basis, but our well-being often depends on these connections.

Economic Links

Canada is already part of the global economy. We depend on trade with other countries for our economic prosperity. We have joined a number of international economic organizations (see chart on page 500) and have established free trade agreements that reduce barriers between countries. These include the Free Trade Agreement with the United States and the North American Free Trade Agreement with the US and Mexico. We will look at these agreements in more detail later in this chapter. Canadians also invest money in global markets and we accept foreign investment into the country.

On the positive side, Canada benefits from economic globalization because increased trade and investment provide many Canadians with a better standard of living. A greater variety of goods and services is available in Canada as a result of globalization. On the negative side, large international corporations are becoming so powerful that governments could lose control over their own affairs. In the case of Canada, the overwhelming economic power of the United States makes it more and more difficult for us to maintain our own identity.

Canada's Links to the Global Community

United Nations. This is the most important international organization for fostering peace and cooperation. It has 185 member nations.

NATO. The North Atlantic Treaty Organization was originally established as a defence pact to counter the threat of the former Communist bloc during the Cold War. Today, it places greater emphasis on political cooperation, promoting democracy, and international security including involvement in peacekeeping operations around the world. It also includes some former members of the Communist bloc (Hungary, Poland, and the Czech Republic joined in 1997).

The Commonwealth. Canada belongs to this organization along with Britain and other former British colonies. It promotes economic and social development, and has pressured some of its members to become more democratic.

La Francophonie. This association of 47 countries where French is spoken promotes economic and social development among its members.

NORAD. The North American Air Defence links Canada militarily to the United States. It was originally set up to defend North American airspace against attack from the former Soviet Union. The name was changed in 1981 to North American Aerospace Defence Command (NAADC). Today, NORAD protects the sovereignty of Canadian airspace, assists in detecting illegal drug trafficking by aircraft, and participates in space research.

APEC. The Asia-Pacific Economic Co-operation has 21 members and is Canada's link to the industrialized countries of the Pacific Rim. The organization's goal is to promote trade and investment among its members.

G-8. The Group of Eight includes Canada, the United States, Britain, France, Italy, Germany, Japan, and Russia—generally considered the major industrialized nations. These countries meet to discuss economic issues and resolve any potential conflicts.

NAFTA. The North American Free Trade Agreement links Canada, the United States, and Mexico in a North American free trading bloc.

OECD. The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development is made up of 29 countries with advanced economies. It exists to promote world trade and to help solve economic problems.

OAS. Thirty-five countries in North and South America meet in the Organization of American States. They work to resolve political and economic problems in the region. Canada did not become a full member until 1990 because of concerns over the lack of democracy in some South American countries.

WTO. The World Trade Organization includes 132 nations that have agreed to lower trade barriers and encourage international trade.

Foreign Policy Links

We also establish global links through our foreign policy. Canada belongs to a number of international organizations not only for economic purposes. Canada used these connections to help develop the treaty banning land mines. It is through these organizations that Canada participates in peacekeeping and peacemaking operations around the world, provides foreign aid and humanitarian relief, and works for human rights.



Canada has played a major role in international peacekeeping operations since Prime Minister Pearson received the Nobel Peace Prize for his role in creating a UN peacekeeping force in 1957. Although it has cost millions of dollars over the years, most Canadians accept the role of Canada as a peacekeeper. Peacekeeping is one of the important ways Canada contributes to international stability.

Peacekeepers are soldiers who intercede between warring groups. They are sent in by an organization such as the United Nations after a truce or ceasefire has been worked out. They act as a buffer between the two sides and try to keep the groups from shooting at each other until a peaceful settlement can be worked out. Peacekeepers must be neutral. If they seem to favour one side over the other, they will not be trusted.

Usually, peacekeeping forces are made up of soldiers from more than one country, operating under the United Nations. They are not expected to resolve a dispute. They monitor the ceasefire and buy time for the diplomats to finalize a solution.

Canada has participated in more UN peacekeeping missions than any other country in the world. The blue helmet of the peacekeeper has become an important Canadian symbol. Some of the peacekeeping operations in which Canada has been involved during the 1980s and 1990s include monitoring the withdrawal of Soviet troops from Afghanistan (1988-90); supervising the ceasefire and withdrawal of troops after the Iran-Iraq War (1988-91); overseeing the granting of independence to Namibia and monitoring its first democratic election (1989-90); and supervising the demobilization of anti-government forces in Nicaragua (1989-92).

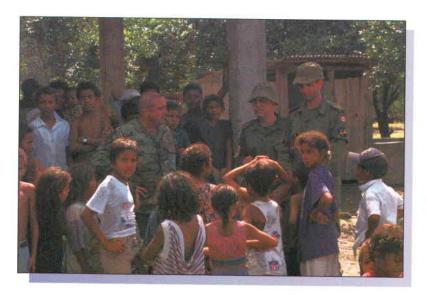
The following are a few other key operations in which Canadian troops participated. Missions included not only peacekeeping, but disaster relief, medical aid, food distribution, support for engineering and construction projects, explosive disposal and mine awareness training, transport and communications operations, policing to protect civilians, evacuation programs, and search and rescue aid.

 Somalia. In 1992, Canadian troops arrived in Somalia as part of a UN mission. Their goal was to stop a violent civil war that had raged on for two years. Thousands of Somalis had been killed and hundreds of thousands faced famine and starvation. Without being invited, the international community decided to take action in what was called Operation Restore Hope. Although the peacekeepers were unable to disarm the warring groups, they provided famine relief and other humanitarian aid. The last UN forces left Somalia in 1995.

Former Yugoslavia. More than 16 000 Canadian troops have served in the former Yugoslavia. Fighting broke out in 1991 after Slovenia and Croatia declared independence. Canada joined a NATO force to monitor a ceasefire and to protect civilians. In 1992, additional Canadian troops joined a UN force in Croatia, which expanded into Bosnia-Herzegovina later that year. A Canadian, Maior General Lewis MacKenzie, was the first commander of the UN Yugoslavia Protection Force. In 1999, about 1300 Canadian peacekeepers were stationed in Kosovo to help maintain peace after the NATO air strikes ended.



In 1992, Operation Restore Hope set up food distribution sites to help relieve the famine in Somalia. Here, workers unload bags of sorghum, a cereal grain.



Canadian troops
provide aid in Central
America after
Hurricane Mitch in
1998. The storm
destroyed more than
70 per cent of the
crops in Honduras
and left 2.5 million
people in Central
America homeless.



Netsurfer
You can trace Canada's
peacekeeping history since
World War II by visiting
this web site:
http://www.dnd.ca/menu/
legacy/index_e.htm.

- Rwanda. From 1993-96, UN peace-keepers were sent on a mission to protect displaced persons and refugees in Rwanda, which was struck by civil war. Canadians participated by distributing relief supplies and carrying out field ambulance flights to offer medical aid. A cholera epidemic had broken out in the country and aid was desperately needed.
- Haiti. Canada led a UN mission in Haiti in 1996-97. The goal was to assist the government to maintain security and restore the economy. Canada also loaned 100 Royal Canadian Mounted Police to Haiti to train a national civilian police force.

In the early 1990s, however, a number of incidents cast a shadow over Canadian peacekeepers. The Canadian Airborne regiment was dismantled after videos released to the media showed questionable initiation practices and evidence of racism among members. A few soldiers serving in Somalia were tried for their involvement in the killing of a Somali citizen. Two of them were convicted and sentenced to prison, one for five years, the other for three months.

The incident tarnished Canada's reputation as a benevolent peacekeeper. Some people feel these are isolated incidents that should not reflect on the remarkable record of Canadian peacekeepers. Others feel strong measures should be taken to counter racism in the military and to ensure Canada continues to play a responsible peacekeeping role.



Peacemaking differs from peacekeeping. Peacemaking usually involves Canadian troops directly in armed combat. It is designed to bring the warring sides to the peace table by the use of force. The UN played a peacemaking role in the **Gulf War** in 1991. NATO took similar action in Kosovo in 1999. Canadians were involved in both operations.

The Gulf War

In August 1990, Saddam Hussein, the leader of Iraq, invaded his oil-rich neighbour, Kuwait. The UN responded to this act of aggression by imposing economic sanctions on Iraq. When Saddam Hussein refused to withdraw from Kuwait, the United Nations authorized the use of force to get Iraq out.

A combined multinational force, led by the United States, attacked the Iraqi army for six weeks. The Iraqis were forced to withdraw from Kuwait with the reported loss of more than 120 000 soldiers. About 200 of the multinational troops were also killed. Eventually, a ceasefire was arranged in 1991. The United Nations required Hussein to destroy stockpiles of chemical and biological weapons and the facilities that manufactured them.

Canada's main contribution to the Gulf War was in patrolling the shipping lanes in the Persian Gulf. This ensured that Iraq did not receive military supplies by sea. Canadian fighter jets took a more offensive role attacking ground targets. Approximately 4500 Canadians served in the conflict. This was the first time that Canadian troops had participated in a war since the Korean War 46 years before.

The War in Kosovo

In 1999, the Canadian government decided to support the NATO bombing of Kosovo, a province of Yugoslavia. This action was intended to stop the ethnic cleansing ordered by Yugoslav President Slobodan Milosevic. **Ethnic cleansing** is the mass expulsion or extermination of people from a particular ethnic group within a certain area. Serbs under Milosevic had killed thousands of Albanian Kosovars and uprooted almost a million more from their homes, driving them into neighbouring countries.

The NATO bombing campaign lasted for 11 weeks. External Affairs Minister Axworthy justified Canada's participation in the NATO mission as an action to "right the wrongs that have taken place so tragically in that area in the last year or two." Canada had never before attacked a sovereign country that had not previously attacked Canada or one of its allies. Canada also accepted thousands of refugees from Kosovo.

Foreign Aid

Canada has a long history of providing aid to foreign nations, particularly developing countries. In the 1980s and 1990s, the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) continued to provide aid to foreign nations in need. In the winter of 1999/2000, CIDA contributed just over \$160 000 to buy warm snowsuits, hats, and mittens for the children of war-torn Kosovo. Food, blankets, and tarpaulins to repair their homes were also sent to help people get through the winter. More funds have



In 1991, a Kuwaiti oil field worker kneels for midday prayers near a burning oil field outside Kuwait City. As they were forced to withdraw, the Iraqi army set fire to Kuwait's oil fields.

been pledged for humanitarian relief and economic assistance.

At the end of the 1980s, the shape of global politics changed dramatically. The Cold War was over. Communist governments in Eastern Europe collapsed. The Soviet Union broke apart into 15 new nations. In 1989 the Berlin Wall, the symbol of a divided Europe, came down. The threat of global nuclear war seemed to fade. Prime Minister Mulroney's government felt that it was important to provide Canadian aid to former Soviet bloc countries. He believed that the area was critical to the future stability and prosperity of both developed and developing countries. CIDA shifted almost \$100 million in aid to the former communist nations of Eastern Europe.

Some critics of the government condemned this change of direction. To them, it seemed that the government was transferring assistance to nations with export potential, rather than helping developing world nations. Critics said that promoting trade and industry was a sound policy, but it should not be considered foreign aid.



Canada has a reputation around the world as a country that promotes human rights. The protection of human rights was first documented by the United Nations in 1948 through the Universal Declaration. Yet in many countries since then people have been jailed and tortured, or have simply vanished for their political beliefs. Others have been persecuted for the colour of their skin, ethnic origin, language, or religion.

Amnesty International is an organization that works to expose violations of human rights anywhere in the world. Members monitor abuses of human rights and expose cases of torture and inhumane practices. In this way, Amnesty International tries to pressure authorities in offending countries to change their practices. The organization also asks other governments to refuse to trade with offending countries. Thousands of political prisoners have been released as a result of pressure from monitoring groups. Others have received more humane treatment in prison when the world spotlight was focused on their repressive governments.

The growing awareness of human rights violations led to the demand that foreign aid should be linked to a country's human rights record. In 1990, Canada was one of the first nations to take up this idea. Canada announced its intention to grant no economic aid to countries that did not recognize the human rights of its population. That same year, Canada reduced its aid to Sri Lanka because of that country's treatment of its Tamil citizens. In 1991, new aid projects in Indonesia were suspended to protest massacres in East Timor.

On the other hand, Canada continues to have normal relations with some countries that violate human rights. In 1989, Canada protested the massacre of political demonstrators in Tiananmen Square in China and cancelled its aid programs. Some Canadians believed that stopping all trade and foreign aid was the way to end human rights abuses in China. Other Canadians wanted to continue to invest in China's booming economy. They argued that we should continue to trade, but work through diplomatic channels to improve China's record on human rights. By 1991, Canada's relations with China had returned to normal. There was, however, no evidence that China's human rights record had improved.

Children's Rights

In 1989, the United Nations passed a convention on Children's Rights. Most nations signed the convention. But on the 10th anniversary of the signing, Amnesty International reported that many governments were failing in their commitments to protect children from human rights abuses. The report noted that:

- Children as young as 14 have been sexually assaulted in Turkey in police custody.
- Children under the age of 18 have received the death penalty in Iran, Nigeria, Pakistan, Yemen, and the United States.
- · Children are forced to work in sweatshops in many countries for pennies a day.
- Over 300 000 children under 18 are fighting in conflicts in Afghanistan, Angola, Colombia, Rwanda, Sri Lanka, and Uganda.

The report concluded with this reminder of why governments must fulfill their commitments under the convention. "Children's rights are the building blocks for securing human rights for future generations."



Developing Skills: Analyzing a Current Issue

Canada enjoys a reputation around the world as a country that promotes and protects human rights. However, many of the countries we trade with have very different forms of government. Some of these governments severely restrict the individual freedoms of their people. In China, for example, some political protestors have been imprisoned, sent into exile, or executed.

In 1998-99, China was Canada's fourth largest source of imports and sixth largest buyer of exports. This economic relationship has grown even more important since Hong Kong, another important trading partner, was returned to China. Canada is faced with a dilemma: how to enjoy a profitable trade relationship with China and still encourage the Chinese government to end human rights abuses.

What do you think Canada should do? Should we close our eyes to human rights abuses in China and continue to enjoy the benefits of trade with that country? Should we cut all trade ties and foreign aid to China until the human rights abuses there end? Should we continue to trade with China, but work through diplomatic channels to encourage improvement of its record on human rights? Let's analyze the issue. Here are the steps to follow.

Step 1

State the issue in the form of a focus question: What should Canada do about the human rights abuses in China?

Step 2

Identify the possible choices or alternatives and write them across the top of an organizer. In this case they are clear: continue to trade with China; cut all trade and foreign aid to China; or, trade but encourage improvements in human rights.

Step 3

Develop a list of criteria to evaluate the alternatives. This is an important step. Ask yourself on what points the China issue should be judged (e.g., cost, feasibility, advantages, etc.). Brainstorm some possible criteria and then choose the most important. Sample criteria have been set out for you in the organizer on the next page, but you may wish to change or add to this list. The criteria are listed down the side of the organizer.

Step 4

Locate as much information as possible in order to evaluate the alternatives effectively. Read what people with differing opinions have written, or, if possible, invite politicians, business people, or other speakers to present their views on the issue to the class. Based on the information you collect, fill in the organizer using point form. Consider the positive and negative sides of each alternative using the criteria.

Step 5

Synthesize and draw conclusions. Individually or in groups, review all the points under the various alternatives. Which column in the organizer has the strongest points? Make a decision.

Step 6

Communicate your conclusion either orally or in writing. Explain to a group of students, parents, or a local service club why you feel the way you do.

Practise It!

Put this new skill to work by completing the organizer that has been started for you. Apply the skill to other issues such as gun control, recognizing Aboriginal treaty rights, or environmental protection.

Issue: What should Canada do about human rights abuses in China?					
Alternatives Criteria	Ignore human rights in China and continue to trade	Cut all trade and foreign aid to China	Trade but encourage China to improve its human rights record		
Who benefits in Canada?					
Who benefits in China?					
Who suffers in Canada?					
Who suffers in China?					
Cost?					
Advantages/disadvantages for Canada?					
Advantages/disadvantages for China?					
Will this plan improve human rights in China?					

Human Rights and War Crimes

Canada has played an important role in the United Nations' effort to bring war criminals involved in recent conflicts to justice. In 1993, the United Nations set up a war crimes tribunal. The UN intended to try to bring to justice those who had been responsible for genocide and massacre in the former Yugoslavia. Genocide is the mass extermination of a particular race or nation. The UN tribunal for Yugoslavia was based in The Hague, Netherlands.

The following year, another tribunal was established for Rwanda. In that Central African nation, there had been serious violations of human rights. It was estimated that between 500 000 and 1 million Tutsi and Hutu people had been slaughtered in 1994.

These tribunals were the first international courts set up for the prosecution of war criminals since the Nuremberg Trials at the end of World War II. Most of the

world welcomed the fact that this was a new chapter in the history of international humanitarian law. In 1996, Louise Arbour of Canada was appointed chief prosecutor for the war crimes tribunal.

During the next three years, the tribunal staff doggedly pursued war criminals. They visited gravesites, interviewed survivors, gathered forensic evidence, and documented their findings. Finally, the chief prosecutor issued indictments for the arrest of Yugoslav president Slobodan Milosevic and other political and military leaders. They were charged with crimes against humanity, including murder. By the time Louise Arbour left the tribunal in 1999 to return to Canada, 67 had been indicted and 35 were still free. Although some of those charged were still free, Arbour told news reporters: "I believe that every person indicted by this tribunal will eventually be tried."

Louise Arbour won high praise internationally and at home in Canada for her work on the war crimes tribunal. She stood up to Yugoslav authorities and turned the tribunal into a very effective court for international justice. In late 1999, Louise Arbour was invited to return home and become one of the nine justices on the Supreme Court of Canada.

Canada and the United States

During the 1970s, measures limiting foreign investment in Canada raised the ire of some Americans. American businesses and investors strongly objected to the Foreign Investment Review Agency (FIRA) and the National Energy Program (NEP). Canada's trade with communist countries such as China also stirred American opposition. By the 1980s, relations between Canada and the United States were strained.

In the federal election of 1984, the Conservative leader Brian Mulroney campaigned on the promise of better relations with the United States, especially economic relations. Canada's economy was in a severe recession. Mulroney insisted that FIRA and NEP discouraged foreign investors. He believed that with more foreign investment, the economy would revive. When he won the election, Mulroney moved quickly to carry out his promise. The NEP was dismantled and FIRA was replaced with Investment Canada. An era of better relations with the United States had begun.

Arctic Sovereignty Dispute, 1985

No sooner were the Conservatives elected than a problem arose between Canada and the US. During the summer of 1985, a US Coast Guard icebreaker, the *Polar Sea*, sailed through the Northwest Passage from Greenland to the Beaufort Sea and Alaska. Its mission was unspecified research for the US Navy.



Louise Arbour, chief prosecutor of the UN's war crimes tribunal from 1996-99, tours the site of a mass grave in Bosnia.

This voyage raised the issue of Arctic sovereignty once again. The first such incident between Canada and the US had occurred after the voyage of the *Manhattan* in 1969. Canada claimed the Northwest Passage as internal waters. Any nation wishing to sail through this passage needed to have Canadian permission. The Americans viewed the passage as an international waterway. At first, the Mulroney government took no action against the American ship.

The government was surprised by the outcry from opposition parties and the Canadian public. Many Canadians saw the *Polar Sea* incident as a clear challenge to our sovereignty over Arctic waters. After some hesitation, the government warned the Americans that failing to recognize the Arctic as Canadian territory would be



Prime Minister
Mulroney and Mila
Mulroney join
President Reagan
and Nancy Reagan in
singing "When Irish
Eyes are Smiling" at
the so-called
Shamrock Summit
talks in 1985.

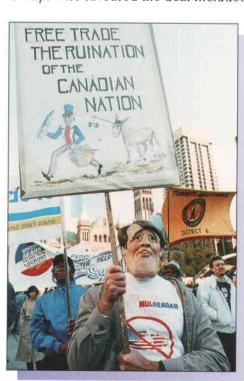
"an unfriendly act." The Conservatives promised Canadians that Canada would build the world's most powerful icebreaker, buy nuclear submarines for Arctic patrol duty, and draw new boundary maps to clearly define Canada's sovereignty in the area. Neither the icebreaker nor the submarines were ever built.

At a 1987 summit meeting between President Reagan and Prime Minister Mulroney, the Americans promised to get permission in the future every time one of their ships or aircraft wanted to cross the Arctic. The Americans would also support Canada's ownership of the Northwest Passage.

The Free Trade Agreement (FTA)

In 1985 Mulroney proposed free trade with the United States, the most momentous step of the decade in Canadian-American relations. Free trade became one of the most controversial issues of the 1980s. Groups who favoured the deal included

A demonstration against the Free Trade Agreement. What do the signs and placards suggest about the reasons for the opposition to free trade?



most of Canada's large and small businesses, the Conservative party, the Canadian Chamber of Commerce, most of the provincial premiers, the Royal Commission on Economic Union and Development Prospects for Canada, and the Canadian Consumers Association. The forces against free trade consisted of nationalists, the Liberal party, the New Democratic Party, pensioners, unions, churches, women's groups, and many citizens. Arguments on both sides are outlined in the chart on the next page.

January 1988 was the deadline for the **Free Trade Agreement**. Minutes before the midnight deadline, it was announced that an agreement-in-principle and been reached. Some of the main points were:

- Elimination of tariffs. The two countries would eliminate tariffs on goods and services starting 1 January 1989 and have open access to each other's markets.
- Dispute settlement mechanism. A fivemember panel, with at least two members from each country, would discuss trade problems that arose between Canada and the United States.
- Investment. Restrictions on American investment in Canada would be reduced, but Canada kept the right to screen and approve takeovers in cultural industries such as publishing and the media.
- Energy. Canada could not restrict the sales of energy resources to the United States except during shortages, and then must provide the Americans with a proportional amount of what is available.
- Agriculture. All tariffs on agricultural products and processed foods would be eliminated over a 10-year period.

When the continental trade deal was announced, the debate in Canada heated up. Provincial leaders in Quebec, Saskatchewan, British Columbia, and

Alberta were quick to give their support. The agreement opened the door for Quebec to make huge sales in hydroelectric power to the northeastern states. Western producers of oil, gas, timber, hogs, and cattle welcomed the opportunity to sell their products freely on the American market.

Provincial premiers in Manitoba, Ontario, and Prince Edward Island worried that the deal would encourage even greater foreign ownership of Canadian resources. Among the potential losers in Ontario were the grape and winemakers, the music recording industry, food-processing plants, and the auto parts industry—all of which faced tough competition from US industries. Prime Minister Mulroney promised public hearings and open debate in Canada on the proposal.

In many ways the debate was similar to the one over reciprocity in 1911, though the politicians had changed sides. In 1911, the Liberals supported free trade and the Conservatives opposed it. However, the arguments for and against were virtually

the same. In both eras, people who believed in free trade saw it as the key to Canadian economic prosperity. Opponents warned that free trade could lead to an American takeover. In 1911, opponents advised that Canada should have "no truck or trade with the Yankees." In 1987, Liberal leader John Turner warned that the country was being "sold down the river." Ed Broadbent, leader of the New Democratic Party, claimed that he "feared for the future of this nation" if the deal passed.

Laurier's campaign for free trade early in the century was hurt when important Americans fed the fear that some Canadians had of the deal. American politicians in 1911 talked about the day when the American flag would fly over all of North America, including Canada. In the 1987 debate, US trade representative Clayton Yeutter told the Congress that the United States was giving up very little and would gain a lot. Also, President Reagan predicted an economic boom for the United States as a result of the deal. Critics of free

Arguments For Free Trade

Trade is vital to the growth of the Canadian economy.

The United States is our best customer and we should take advantage of increased trade opportunities.

We need to overcome US protectionism. (The USA was considering trade barriers to protect its own industries, which could have been devastating for Canada.)

Free trade would increase productivity because Canadians would have access to a larger market. It would create new jobs.

Consumers would benefit from more choice and lower prices.

Free trade works elsewhere, for example, in the European Union.

Free trade would encourage foreign investment in new businesses.

Arguments Against Free Trade

Free trade only benefits "big business."

Canadian businesses will have to close down because they cannot compete with larger American companies.

Jobs would be lost as companies close or move to the United States.

Free trade threatens Canada's social programs, such as Medicare.

It threatens Canadian culture.

It threatens Canadian political sovereignty.

Americans would no longer need to invest in Canada if they had open access to our markets.

FAST FORWARD

The Free Trade Area of the Americas

The year 2005 has been designated by all heads of governments in the western hemisphere as the formal target date for an agreement called the Free Trade Area of the Americas (FTAA). This vast trading zone would encompass the entire western hemisphere. The terms are still under intensive negotiation. If it comes to pass, the huge new common market will embrace some 765 million people. Just as the FTA and NAFTA brought dramatic changes to Canada, the arrival of the FTAA will launch the country into a new chapter in its history.

trade in Canada seized on these comments as proof that free trade would be dangerous for Canadian economic and political independence.

However, there were also important differences in the reciprocity debate of 1911 and the free trade debate in the 1980s. When Canadians rejected reciprocity with the United States in 1911, they knew they could count on the British Empire for trade. By 1988, things had changed. Canada now had almost three times as much trade with the United States as with the rest of the world. Some experts warned that not having a deal might be even worse. They believed that if either Parliament or the United States Congress rejected the deal, a trade war would follow. With protectionism being so strong in America, the US would probably erect higher and higher trade barriers, causing Canada to retaliate.

Prime Minister
Chrétien with Cuban
leader Fidel Castro in
Havana in 1998. The
Canadian government
has also tried to
maintain good trade
relations with Cuba,
defying a US economic
blockade of the
country since 1961.



Free trade was the most important issue in the hard-fought federal election of 1988. When the Conservatives won a majority of the seats in Parliament, the Free Trade Agreement (FTA) became law on 1 January 1989.

North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA)

Not long after the Free Trade Agreement was signed, Mexico expressed interest in joining the association. On 1 January 1994, Canada entered the **North American Free Trade Agreement** with the United States and Mexico.

Canada's trade with Mexico was only \$3 billion annually compared with \$180 billion with the United States. However, the Canadian government feared that if it remained on the sidelines, it could lose trade with the United States, our best customer. NAFTA created a market, which linked approximately 390 million North Americans into a single trading region stretching from the Yukon to the Yucatan. By the agreement, Canada, Mexico, and the United States provided open access to each other's markets for most goods.

Those Canadians who opposed NAFTA felt it was a further step toward the complete domination of Canada by the United States. Would Canada, they asked, be able to protect its own steel, textile, and automobile industries in the face of much

cheaper production costs in Mexico or the United States? Could Canadians maintain a unique culture, while forging closer economic ties with much larger nations?

Those who favoured NAFTA said it would make North America more competitive with Asian and European trading blocs. Globalization has led many other regions of the world to form free trade zones. Canadians must be prepared to compete in the new global marketplace. It could also be a step toward a future North and South American free trade area. Shortly after becoming Prime Minister in 1994, Jean Chrétien and a delegation of Canadian business people travelled to Latin America. Their goal was to foster stronger trade and investment links. Chrétien indicated at that time that he supported the eventual expansion of NAFTA to include Latin American nations.

Pacific Salmon Dispute

In the 1990s, Canada and the United States became embroiled in a dispute known as the "salmon wars." In 1985, the two countries had signed the Pacific Salmon Treaty. The purpose of the treaty was to regulate the salmon catch of fishers in British Columbia, Washington State, and Alaska. The issue was a tricky one because salmon migrate during their life cycle. Although many spawn in the Fraser and other British Columbian rivers, they also spend considerable time in American waters.

In the 1990s, in spite of the treaty, the two sides were unable to agree on how many fish should be caught. Salmon stocks were steadily decreasing. Experts believed that this was due to over-fishing and pollution of the salmon habitat. Logging, landfills, and industrial and agricultural pollution had all seriously damaged the spawning grounds.

With no quotas in place, fleets from both countries were taking as many fish



About 200 Canadian fishing boats blocked the passage of the US ferry Malaspina in Prince Rupert Harbour, July 1997. Were the BC fishers justified? Why or why not?

as they could catch. The situation reached a crisis in 1997. Talks had stalled. There was no agreement on how much sockeye salmon bound for the Fraser River the Americans would be allowed to catch, or how much coho salmon which spawns in US waters the Canadians would be allowed to fish. British Columbia fishers blamed American fishers for catching too many British Columbia salmon. Salmon fishers from British Columbia protested by blocking an American ferry in Prince Rupert Harbour.

The "salmon wars" ignited a political battle. The premier of British Columbia threatened to cancel the lease on the US naval base on Vancouver Island. The US Congress urged President Clinton to send the US navy to protect the Alaska ferries. The Canadian government feared that the Americans might retaliate with a full-scale trade war. Many British Columbia citizens felt that the federal government was more interested in appeasing the Americans than in fighting for the rights of Canadian fishers.

Canadian officials were sent to Washington to solve the standoff. But the only progress they made was to appoint two negotiators to try to restart the treaty talks. As long as the disagreement continued, there was danger that salmon stocks could be completely wiped out. The dispute also



IMPACT ON SOCIETY

IS CANADIAN CULTURE ON THE BARGAINING TABLE?

Canada is fighting a trade battle to protect its magazine industry. For decades, Ottawa followed a policy of taxing split-run American magazines. Split-run meant that a non-Canadian magazine such as *Time* published a Canadian edition for the Canadian market. This edition included some Canadian content along with a lot of recycled American material. For example, a Canadian edition of *Time* might have a lead article on Lucien Bouchard, but that article would not appear in the American edition. *Time* also sold all advertising space for the split- run edition to Canadian businesses.

The government felt it had a duty to protect the Canadian magazine industry. Canadian publishers warned that split-runs were draining away local advertising dollars and hurting Canadian magazines financially. Advertising dollars in Canada were limited. In an attempt to save what little Canadian advertising dollars there were for Canadian magazines, Ottawa imposed an 80 per cent tax on advertising in split-runs.

For years, American publishers complained about this policy. Sports Illustrated brought the protests to a head. Sports Illustrated had started a Canadian edition in 1993, but hired few Canadians as editors or sports writers. They used exactly the same American content in the Canadian edition. Stories were transferred electronically from the US and printed in Canada. The only difference was that the split-run edition had Canadian advertisements. Sports Illustrated was able to sell the magazine at a cheaper price than most other Canadian magazines because it made large profits from the huge American market. No Canadian magazine could compete. Since Canadian magazines were in danger of going out of business, the government slapped a tax on the Canadian edition of Sports Illustrated.

The publishers of *Sports Illustrated* took their complaint to NAFTA. They argued that the Canadian government was treating them unfairly. They protested Canada's special taxes and tariffs aimed at blocking magazines that have separate ads in their Canadian editions. The NAFTA tribunal ruled against the magazine. The tribunal declared that, under the terms of NAFTA, the Canadian government had the right to take these steps to protect Canadian culture.

Sports Illustrated then appealed to the World Trade Organization in 1997. This time, the WTO upheld the US magazine's protest against Canada's special taxes and tariffs on their Canadian editions. The WTO ruled that Canada's policy on split-run magazines violated global trade rules.

To try to get around the WTO ruling, Heritage Minister Sheila Copps introduced Bill C-55 in Parliament. Bill C-55 bans Canadian advertising in foreign magazines that include only minimal Canadian content, but sell Canadian advertising at cheaper rates than Canadian-only publications. Canada has called the ban a "cultural" matter.

Immediately, the American government warned that it would retaliate if Bill C-55 passed into law. The US threatened to introduce sanctions against Canadian steel, textiles, and other goods. Sheila Copps insisted that Canada must stand up to foreign bullying and protect its culture. Others in government, however, felt that the US threat had to be taken seriously. They sought to negotiate a way out of a trade confrontation.

After Bill C-55 became law, negotiators from the two countries met to hammer out a compromise. In the end, the Canadian government agreed to allow up to 18 per cent Canadian advertising in magazines such as *Sports Illustrated* and *Readers' Digest* over a

three-year period. After three years, if an Americanbased magazine wanted more than 18 per cent Canadian advertising, it would have to contain a majority of Canadian editorial content. The Canadian government also agreed to provide some subsidies or financial support to Canadian magazines.

- 1. a) Do you think that American magazines threaten Canadian culture? Why or why
 - b) How important is it that a magazine have editorial content created specifically for Canadian readers? Should Canada stand up to the United States on this issue? Explain.
- 2. Do you think that Canadian culture needs to be defended by legislation? Justify your position.

threatened the livelihoods of 6000 British Columbia salmon fishers and thousands more in the processing industry and sports fishery.



😂 🛇 Global Trade

Each year since becoming Prime Minister, Jean Chrétien has led a tour to encourage more trade in a specific area of the world. These excursions are known as the **Team Canada missions.** Provincial premiers, business leaders, university presidents, and young entrepreneurs are invited to join the trips. Usually, there is representation from all regions of Canada. Each mission emphasizes 8-10 business focus sectors that are thought to be of most interest to the countries visited. For each trip, Team Canada charters a jet to foreign cities where meetings are arranged with local business and political leaders.

Everywhere they have gone, Team Canada members have put the spotlight on Canadian commercial, political, educational, and cultural links with the countries visited. Supporters believe that the Team Canada missions are an important part of Canada's international business development effort. By increasing international trade, the missions create jobs and promote economic growth in Canada. Exports are vital to the Canadian economy. One in three jobs in Canada is tied to exports. Every \$1 billion in exports creates or sustains about 11 000 jobs in Canada. The following are highlights of some recent Team Canada missions.

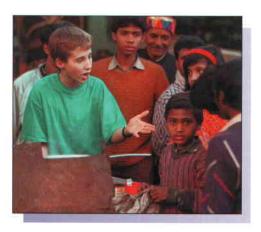
1999 - Japan

Participants were chosen from all provinces and territories. A total of 269 business delegates were part of the team, including 50 women, 29 young entrepreneurs, and four representatives from Aboriginal nations. The emphasis was on information and communications technology and education. Deals totalling \$409 million dollars were signed.

1998 - Mexico, Brazil, Argentina, and Chile

The team included 527 business people. Companies from all 10 provinces signed contracts and 306 deals were completed. This was the highest number of deals ever signed on a Team Canada mission. Their value was \$1.78 billion. One contract was for \$300 million with the Canadian Wheat Board.

Canadian teenager,
Craig Kielburger,
made a public plea
not to let business
overshadow Canada's
concern for human
rights. The photo
shows Kielburger
discussing child
labour with Munna, a
10-year-old food
vendor in India.



1997 – Korea, the Philippines, and Thailand

Nine provincial premiers and 502 business people joined the Prime Minister on this 12-day trip. The mission resulted in \$2.13 billion worth of contracts for Canadian companies.

1996 – India, Pakistan, Indonesia, and Malaysia

In this year 300 business people visited south Asia and came home with \$8.72 billion in deals. It was in India that Team Canada met 13-year-old Canadian teenager, Craig Kielburger. Craig had founded an organization called Free the Children in 1995. It is dedicated to stopping the exploitation of children around the world. Craig visited India and saw for himself the conditions faced by some young children who are forced to work in factories for pennies a day. Craig Kielburger persuaded the Canadian government to set aside some foreign aid funds to help exploited children. In India, Kielburger reminded business leaders that they have a responsibility to make sure the contracts they sign do not involve the use of child labour.

1995 - China

The first Team Canada mission involved 188 business people who worked out trade

deals valued at \$8.6 billion. The largest contract was for the sale of two CANDU nuclear reactors worth \$3.5 billion. China continues to be a profitable market for Canadian companies. At a special ceremony in Toronto in 1999, the Canada-China Business Council signed 12 deals with Chinese firms worth \$2.3 billion.

Links to the European Union (EU)

In addition to the close trade relationship with the United States and Mexico, Canada has other important global economic links. The European Union is a huge potential market for Canadian goods and a source of foreign investment for Canada.

The European Union is an association of 15 European countries, including Britain. These countries have joined together to form a vast economic, multicountry trading market. Poland, Hungary, the Czech Republic, Slovenia, Estonia, and Cyprus have also applied for membership. But the EU is more than a trading partnership. It also includes political institutions, such as the European Parliament, that work for closer political cooperation among the countries of Europe. Within the EU, citizens of member countries travel freely across borders without visas and are not charged duties or taxes on goods. By 1 July 2002, a common currency called the "euro" will replace the various local currencies.

The European Union is Canada's second largest trading partner after the USA. In 1996, Canada imported \$22.7 billion worth of goods from the EU and exported \$14.8 billion. The EU is also the second largest source of foreign investment in Canada. However, there are some dangers, as well as advantages, to Canada's links to the European Union. If Canada has a problem with one member country, the dispute can spill over to all members of the EU.



Netsurfer
Find out more about Craig
Kielburger and Free
the Children at
www.freethechildren.org/.



Former Fisheries
Minister Brian Tobin
shows where the
Spanish vessel Estai
was seized in 1995
for using illegal nets.
The incident led to a
major dispute with
the European Union.

The dispute with Spain over fishing in Newfoundland waters is a case in point. In 1992, the Canadian government announced a ban on all northern cod fishing. Fish stocks were severely depleted, and scientists feared they might never recover. Vessels with high-technology drag nets had been operating on the Grand Banks since 1977. Canada claimed that fishing by EU countries, especially Spain, was threatening the complete collapse of the fishery.

In 1995, Minister of Fisheries at the time, Brian Tobin, ordered Canadian patrol boats to fire shots across the bow of a Spanish fishing trawler, the *Estai*. The Spanish boat was seized and charged with overfishing and using illegal nets. Spanish officials were furious and took their complaints to the European Union. The issue was not resolved until an agreement was reached with the EU on acceptable quotas. But at the time of the incident, Canada was trying to negotiate a wide-ranging trade deal with the EU. Spain was able to

use its influence inside the EU to delay the Canadian-EU agreement for almost two years. The case was a warning of how a medium-sized country like Canada is at a disadvantage when dealing with a large bloc of countries.

Links to Asia Pacific

Canada also has strong trade ties with Japan, Hong Kong, China, and the countries of the Pacific Rim. Since 1989, Canada has been a member of the **Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC)**. APEC was founded to encourage trade among its members and to improve their economies. It covers a much wider geographic area than the European Union, including Asian countries of both the western and eastern Pacific. Although the member countries have very different cultures and systems of government, they recognize the advantages of working together interdependently.

Canada's trade with APEC countries boomed during the 1980s and 1990s. The



You can read more about the European Union in eleven different languages at http://www.europa.eu.int.





SPOTLIGHT On...

David See-Chai Lam

David See-Chai Lam emigrated from Hong Kong to Canada in 1967. He settled in Vancouver and got a job selling real estate. He began developing properties in Vancouver and became one of the city's leading land developers.

In 1989, Chinese soldiers killed pro-democracy

demonstrators in Tiananmen Square. Hong Kong residents became more and more uneasy as Britain prepared to return the colony to the People's Republic of China in 1997. Thousands of residents prepared to leave the colony. David Lam encouraged many of them to come to Canada. He assured them that "Canada isn't a racist society. It is a wonderfully varied, multi-ethnic, very caring and compassionate society."

Between 1987 and 1996, more than 290 000 immigrants arrived in Canada from Hong Kong. Many were business people interested in new investment opportunities. David Lam was responsible for encouraging a large number of Hong Kong investors to settle in Vancouver. Their investment dollars had a strong positive impact on the Canadian economy, especially in British Columbia and Ontario.



When David Lam retired, he established a foundation as a means of contributing to his community. Millions of dollars have been distributed by the foundation to causes such as the David Lam Management Research Library at the University of British Columbia; the David Lam

Centre for International Communication at Simon Fraser University; hospitals; and the Asian–Pacific Centre, which Lam helped to found. He encouraged other Hong Kong philanthropists who immigrated to Canada to give as generously to their new country.

In 1988, David See-Chai Lam was made a member of the Order of Canada. That same year, he was appointed lieutenant governor of British Columbia, a post he held for seven years. Lam was the first person of Asian ancestry to hold the position of lieutenant governor in Canada.

 Find out what contributions other immigrants from Hong Kong or elsewhere in Asia are making to Canadian society.

Asia Pacific region contains about 60 per cent of the world's population. Canadian businesses recognized the opportunities of tapping into this vast market. Pacific Rim countries were interested in buying Canadian natural resources, such as lumber, minerals, and fish. They also bought telecommunications systems, power gen-

erators, and environmental technology. In return, Asian Pacific countries exported automobiles, televisions, CD players and other electronic equipment, and high-tech items such as computer chips to Canada. Canada has been running a trade deficit with APEC countries. In other words, we have been buying more than we have

been selling. Why? One reason is that production costs are much lower in countries such as China or Malaysia. Workers there earn a fraction of what Canadian workers earn making the same product. Another reason is that Japan has the highest number of robots working in factories than any other industrialized country. Robots do not earn salaries or benefits; therefore, Japan is able to produce some manufactured goods more cheaply and competitively than Canada can. Both these factors have cost Canadians jobs. In some cases, Canadian businesses have moved their factories to Asia to compete. Some have closed down altogether.

Impact of the Internet

One aspect of globalization is the increasing influence of the **Internet**. The Internet, an international linking of computers, has changed the way human beings around the world communicate with each other. At the beginning of the twentieth century, messages were carried between countries by foot, horse, or boat. Then came the ocean-going ship, telegraph, airplane, radio, television, and satellite. With each invention, communication time speeded up.

Today, vast amounts of information travel from one corner of the globe to another instantaneously through the Internet. Use of the Internet, especially the World Wide Web, is growing by almost 100 per cent every year. By January 2002, it is forecast that 700 million users will be communicating through the Internet. We are all closer to each other than we have ever been in history.

The Internet presents a new and difficult challenge to those who want to protect Canadian culture. The "information highway" makes national borders mean-

Canada's Trade with Asian Pacific Countries, 1999 (in millions of Canadian dollars)

Country	Imports (into Canada)	Exports (out of Canada)	
Japan	1 032.3	671.6	
China	616.6	143.9	
Taiwan	344.5	105.1	
Korea	270.1	124.4	
Malaysia	143.4	27.4	
Singapore	115.4	35.7	
Thailand	107.9	23.6	
Hong Kong	107.3	76.5	
Australia	99.5	61.2	
Indonesia	79.0	28.3	
Philippines	67.2	13.4	
New Zealand	24.3	11.5	
Papua New Guinea	.067	.23	
Brunei Darussalam	.045	.14	

Source: Statistics Canada Report, 21 January 2000.

ingless to anyone with a computer and a modem. American web sites provide American content for surfing and downloading by Internet users around the world. The Internet has enhanced US cultural dominance. This is due in part to the fact that Americans were on-line before most of the rest of the world. It is also because the country wields such economic power.

Some cultural nationalists fear that the Internet is diluting Canadian culture in a sea of American electronic information.

Canada 4.53 million (Nov. 1997)
USA 55 million (June 1998)
World 102 million (Jan. 1998)

Which country is Canada's most important trading partner? Does Canada have a trade surplus or a trade deficit with Asia Pacific? Explain. The Internet has changed the way people communicate and use information around the world.



Others point out that the Internet is not a one-way communication medium like TV or movies. Perhaps, they say, the interactive nature of communication on the Internet might present the opportunity to project Canadian culture rather than simply absorb American culture.

Other experts believe that the "information highway" will eventually create a

A Timeline of Internet History

- **1969** Computer science professor Leonard Kleinrock's computer at the University of Southern California "spoke" to another computer at Stanford University. The connection marked the beginning of the Internet and was the culmination of years of research by Kleinrock and others into sharing information over a web of connected computers.
- 1971 E-mail is invented to send messages across a distributed network.
- **1973** The microcomputer appears for the first time.

 An international Internet connection is established among the US, England, and Norway.
- 1975 Bill Gates gets into the computer business; IBM markets laser printers.
- 1977 Apple II, the first home computer, debuts.
- 1981 Computer "firsts" include the IBM PC, the mouse pointing device, and the laptop.
- **1983** The Internet is created as a network of connecting computers; the computer is named "Man of the Year" by *Time* magazine.
- **1984** Canadian William Gibson, a Vancouver science fiction writer, coins the phrase "cyberspace" to describe the new universe of electronic communications.
- **1985** 100 years to the day of the last spike being driven on the transcontinental railroad, the last Canadian university is connected to NetNorth Network in a one-year effort to have coast-to-coast connectivity.
- **1986** NSFNET (National Science Foundation Network) is created to provide high energy computing power for all, resulting in an explosion of links.
- 1988 Canada, Denmark, Finland, France, Iceland, Norway, and Sweden connect to FSNNET.
- 1989 Countries connecting to NSFNET include Australia, Germany, Italy, Israel, Japan, Mexico, Netherlands, New Zealand, Puerto Rico, and the United Kingdom.
- 1990 America Online is founded.
- **1991** The World Wide Web emerges as the most popular way to browse the network. Eleven more countries connect to NSFNET.
- 1992 The term "surfing the Internet" is coined. Thirteen more countries link to NSFNET.
- 1993 Netscape Communications is founded and creates Netscape browser. Seventeen more countries link to the Net.
- 1995 The Canadian government comes on-line.
- 1996 Hackers break into US Department of Justice, CIA, Air Force, and UK Labour party.
- **1999** First full-service bank, available only on the Net, opens for business. The Internet celebrates its 30th birthday.

global culture. They point out that by the early years of the twenty-first century, for the first time ever, there will be more non-English than English speakers on-line.

Partnerships in Space

In 1988, international cooperation in space research entered a new era. In that year, Canada, the United States, Russia, Japan, Brazil, and 11 European countries joined in a new NASA program. Together they hoped to achieve what few countries had the expertise or finances to accomplish alone. Their goal was to construct an International Space Station (ISS). It would be a successor to the Russian space station Mir and represented the most ambitious engineering project ever undertaken. The ISS will support a permanent international crew of seven astronauts and will serve as an observation platform of earth.

Construction began in November 1998 with the launch of a Russian module called *Zarya*. The following month, the American module *Unity* was linked to *Zarya*, creating a true orbiting space station 400 km above the earth. It will take approximately 45 NASA space shuttle missions to transport and assemble all the ISS components. The new orbiting space station is expected to be complete by 2004. Fully assembled, the station will cover an area as large as a football field (108 m long) and weigh 450 metric tonnes.

Canada's crucial contribution to the International Space Station is the **Mobile Service System (MSS)**. MSS will play a key role in the construction of the station and its continuing operation in space. MSS includes equipment and facilities located on the space station and on the ground. The on-station elements include a sophis-

Canadian Space Industry's Contribution to Innovation and Growth

- \$1 billion in annual revenues
- 30 per cent of exports (the highest ratio in the world)
- · Approximately 5000 jobs across Canada
- Over \$81 million allocated to research and development
- 60% of revenues attributed to the communications sector

Source: Canadian Space Agency, 1996.

ticated space "arm" and a mobile platform to support it. It has been called a new generation Canadarm.

The ground facilities for Canada's part of the project are located at Saint Hubert, Quebec. The facility will train Canadian astronauts who will eventually be part of the ISS crew and house experts who will monitor the health of the robotic arm.

Satellite Technology

In the 1980s and 1990s, Canada also continued its world-renowned program of research and experiments in satellite technology. Canada's first Earth Observation Satellite, named *Radarsat-1*, was launched in 1995. It was designed and built in Canada by a team of 30 companies under the supervision of Spar Aerospace. As it hurtled around the globe every 110 minutes, it provided images of the earth's surface day and night and in any cloud condition.

In wartime, *Radarsat* could monitor troop movements from space. In peacetime, the satellite has been used to observe an enormous range of objects for government and business. It has monitored the movement of ice for ship navigation and told scientists what is going on with water flows so they can help predict flood conditions. It has provided coastal surveillance, observed fish stocks, and monitored the depletion of the world's



The Technological Edge

CANADIAN ASTRONAUTS

Canadian astronauts have flown on more NASA space shuttle missions than astronauts from any other country except the United States. Our astronauts have represented Canada in supporting several international space projects and have participated in groundbreaking research and experiments.

Marc Garneau was Canada's trailblazer astronaut. our first person in space. Garneau, an electrical engineer from Quebec City, flew aboard Challenger in October 1984. During eight days circling the earth, he carried out space science experiments. As a true Canadian hockey fan, he carried the first hockey puck into space in his baggage. Garneau flew on a second mission in May 1996 aboard Endeavour, and on a third mission in 1999.

Roberta Bondar was the first Canadian woman astronaut to travel in space. To honour that accomplishment, Bondar was granted the Order of Canada in 1992. She flew aboard the American space shuttle Discovery. As a medical doctor and neurobiologist, her role was conducting life science research on motion sickness, weightlessness, the way the human body adapts to space flights, and the amount of energy astronauts use in space.

Steve Maclean, a specialist in astrophysics and laser physics, was selected to conduct experiments in the American shuttle program. However, he was not chosen for a shuttle mission until 1992. After nine years of training and delays, Maclean lifted off in the shuttle Columbia. His experiments were in space vision, sensing, and materials physics.

Chris Hadfield was assigned to join the NASA shuttle Atlantis in 1995 to link up with the Russian space station Mir. His main duty was to manoeuver the docking tunnel that would link Atlantis to the space station. That made Hadfield the first Canadian in space to operate the Canadarm, the made-in-Canada remote control manipulator. Hadfield was



Julie Payette on board the space shuttle Discovery.

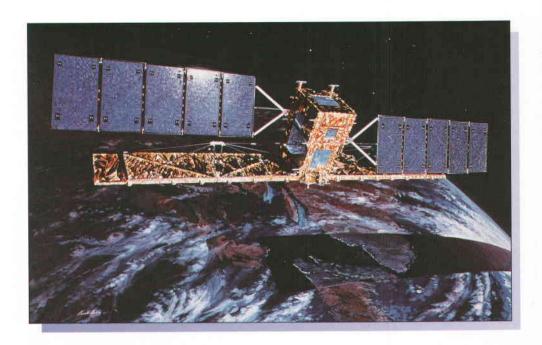
assigned to space again in 1999, this time to work on the new space station.

Bob Thirsk and Dave Williams carried out research. on weightlessness in missions in 1996 and 1998. Thirsk, with six crewmates, spent 17 days aboard the shuttle Columbia. Their experiments investigated the changes in plants, animals, and humans under space flight conditions. Williams, a physician, also studied sleep and balance disorders, and motion sickness. His experiments may lead to treatments that will help future astronauts live and work for long periods in space.

Bjarni Tryggvason participated in his first flight aboard the space shuttle Discovery in 1997. He performed fluid physics experiments to examine sensitivity to spacecraft vibrations. This work was intended to develop a better understanding of the effect that vibrations might have on work that is to be performed on the ISS. Tryggvason has been trained for the International Space Station flight assignments.

Julie Payette went aloft in Discovery in May 1999. She was part of a 10-day logistics and resupply mission to the International Space Station. Julie Payette became the first Canadian to participate in an International Space Station assembly mission and to board the Station.

1. Find out more about the training Canadian astronauts will go through for missions on the International Space Station. Prepare a report for your class.



rainforests. One of *Radarsat's* greatest accomplishments was mapping the entire continent of Antarctica for the first time in history.

Radarsat-2 is scheduled to be launched in 2001. Built in British Colum-

bia, it will be the most advanced Synthetic Aperture Radar (SAR) satellite in the world. It will provide the clearest pictures yet of the earth from space and will ensure the continuity of data from *Radarsat-1* for users worldwide.

The Radarsat satellite represented a major advance in satellite technology because it was able to take clear pictures of the earth under any weather conditions, including heavy cloud cover.



Netsurfer

The Canadian Astronaut web site will tell you about Canada's team of astronauts: http://www.space.gc.ca/iss/en/canastronauts/index_en.htm.
The web site at Marc Garneau Collegiate, Toronto, provides information about the Canadian astronaut program: http://www.spacenet.eybe.edu.on.ca.

?

Activities

Understand Facts and Concepts

1. Add these new terms to your Factfile.

anti-personnel land mines
Ottawa Process
peacemaking
Gulf War
ethnic cleansing
Amnesty International
war crimes tribunal
genocide
Free Trade Agreement (FTA)

North American Free Trade Agreement
(NAFTA)
salmon wars
Team Canada missions
Free the Children
Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation
(APEC)
Internet
International Space Station
Mobile Service System (MSS)

- 2. What role did Canada play in the international battle to ban land mines?
- 3. a) Explain the difference between peacekeeping and peacemaking.
 - b) Describe an example of each involving Canada.
- 4. a) Provide an example of the role Canada has played in curbing human rights abuses.
 - b) How successful was this effort? Explain.
- 5. Make a two-column organizer. In the left column, summarize in your own words the main arguments for free trade with the United States. Rank them in order of importance. In the right column, summarize the main arguments against free trade in order of importance.
- 6. a) What are the Team Canada missions?
 - b) How effective are they? Defend your answer.
- 7. What has Canada contributed to, and gained from, space exploration?

Think and Communicate

- 8. Discuss the following questions in small groups and report your conclusions to the class.
 - a) Do you think that Canada's foreign aid should be tied to a country's record on human rights? Explain.
 - b) Should foreign aid benefit Canada as well as the recipient country? Explain your reasoning.
- 9. a) Outline the changes in the role of Canada's armed forces since World War II. Present your findings in an illustrated timeline, photo essay, or bulletin board display.
 - b) This chapter has focused on the role of Canada's armed forces abroad. Do research to find out more about the role of the forces at home. Include this information in your presentation.
- 10. Write a newspaper editorial explaining why NAFTA is or is not good for the Canadian economy.
- 11. Using a web diagram, show how people in other parts of Canada are affected by the salmon wars in British Columbia.
- 12. State your opinions. Which political figure in the 1990s did most to shape modern-day Canada? Which non-political person has made an important contribution to Canada in the same period? Justify your answers.

Apply Your Knowledge

- 13. On a wall map of the world, place Canadian flags to indicate where Canadian peace-keepers have been stationed since the end of World War II. In groups, research one of the missions. Find out what the conflict was about and what role Canadians played in keeping the peace. Add a summary of this information around the borders of the map.
- 14. Do research to find out where Aboriginal peoples in British Columbia stand on the salmon dispute. Present your findings to the class.
- 15. Each year, the Nobel Prize for Peace is awarded to someone who has made an outstanding contribution to world peace. Find out more about some recent recipients of the award. Prepare a short report describing the international crisis in which the award winner was involved. Then explain what this individual did to contribute to a peaceful solution.
- 16. In 1997, the national polling firm Pollara carried out a wide-ranging poll on what it means to be a Canadian. In one question, Canadians were asked whether or not it would be possible to protect Canadian culture with the advent of new electronic technologies. The national results in 1997 were:

Impossible 48%

Possible 39%

Don't know 13%

Hold an informal opinion survey in your classroom or school, and ask the same question. How do the results compare to the Pollara poll? Analyze your survey results. What conclusions can you draw?

Index

Aberhart, William, 199 Aboriginal peoples artists, 321-322 and Charlottetown Accord. 443 and Charter of Rights and Freedoms, 377, 411-412 enfranchisement of, 146-147. as independent nations, 355 in the 1860s, 2, 6 Ipperwash conflict, 484-485 James Bay Agreement, 409 land claims, 6, 147, 356, 409, 482-485 and Mackenzie Valley Pipeline Inquiry, 411 and Oka standoff, 482-484 political activism, 145-147, 354-355, 409-412 political organizations, 356-357 relocation of communities, 356 and residential schools, 145-146, 355, 356 self-government, 443, 485, 488 Statement of Reconciliation to. 485, 488 and unilateral separation of Quebec, 447 White Paper on, 355 and World War I, 75, 108 and World War II, 236 Adams, Howard, 355 Aerial Experiment Association (AEA), 18 Afghanistan, 501 Aglukark, Susan, 492 Ahenakew, Edward, 146 Air Canada, 165, 237 Aitken Max (Lord Beaverbrook). 53, 93 Alaska boundary dispute, 45-47, 45 Alaska Highway, 259 Alberta, 16 Co-operative Commonwealth Federation in, 200 francophone festivals in, 452 French language rights in, 42 Social Credit in. 199 women's suffrage in, 116 and World War I, 118 See also West, Canadian Alderson (Alberta), 110 Algoma Steel, 53 Alliance of Manufacturers and Exporters Canada, 54 Alliance Ouebec, 374 Allied Tribes, 147 Alverstone, Lord, 46, 47 Amnesty International, 504 Anglo-conformity, 26 Anik satellites, 427 Anti-Semitism, 216-221 See also Holocaust: Jewish refugees

Apartheid, 302, 390 Appeasement, 222, 226 Appliances, household, 21, 336 Arbour, Louise, 506 Arcand, Adrian, 218 l'Arche, 286 Arctic, 292, 302, 507-508 Arctic Water Pollution Prevention Act. 303 Armée de Liberation du Québec (ALO), 316 Arms race, 44, 67, 69, 291, 292 Armstrong, Louis, 168 Arts and culture art, 151-152, 171, 321 dance, 324 films, 325-327 literature, 324-325, 389, 459 television, 325, 387 theatre, 323-324, 389 See also Popular culture Ashoona, Pitseolak, 321-322 Asia-Pacific Economic Co-operation (APEC), 500, 515 Assimilation of Aboriginal peoples, 6, 145of immigrants, 26 Athenia, 226 Atomic bomb, 242-243, 250-251 Atomic Energy Canada Ltd. (AECL), 428 Atwood, Margaret, 388-389 Auschwitz, 247-248 Austria-Hungary, 65, 66, 69 Austrian Canadians, 22, 76, 110 Automatic teller machines (ATMs), 470, 474 Automobiles, in early twentieth century, 17-18 manufacturing, 162, 163 parts manufacturing, 340-341 and suburbanization, 166-167 and suburban lifestyle, 336 Autonomy, 126 See also Canada, sovereignty Auto Pact, 299 Aviation, 18-19, 94-96, 98, 164-165, 231-232

Baby boom, 334-335 impact of, 384-85, 455-456 Bachman-Turner Overdrive, 387 Bader, Douglas, 231 Baldwin, Casey, 18 Balfour Report, 156 Balkans, 65, 69 Ball, Alfred, 95 Band, the, 329 Bank of Canada, 473 Bank mergers, 474-475 Banting, Frederick, 137 Barker, Captain E.A., 144

Axis Powers, 223

Axworthy, Lloyd, 498-499

Beatlemania, 328 Beaudin, Jean, 387 Beaverbrook, Lord. See Aitken, Max Beck, Nuala, 468-469 Belgium, 69 Bell, Alexander Graham 18 Bennett Buggy, 189, 191 Bennett, R.B., 190, 191, 192, 198 Bennett's "New Deal," 198 Bergen-Belsen concentration camp, 246, 247 Berger, Thomas, 411 Best, Charles, 137 Bethune, Norman, 219 "Big bang" theory, 337 Bilingualism, 317-318, 319-320 Bill 22, 370-371 Bill 86, 442 Bill 101, 373-374, 442 Bill 178, 442 Bishop, Billy, 95 Black Canadians, 6 civil rights struggles, 357-358 immigration from Caribbean, 310 and Black nationalism, 358 settlers, 25 and World War I, 75-76, 109 and World War II, 236-237 Black Flight, 95 Black Hand, 65, 66 Black Nationalism Movement, 357 "Black Tuesday," 182 Blais, Marie Claire, 459 Blitzkrieg, 231 Bloc Populaire, 263 Bloc Québécois, 443, 445 "Bloody Saturday" 140 Board of Grain Supervisors, 113 Boer War, 43-44 Bolsheviks, 139 Bomarc missiles, 293 Bombardier, Joseph-Armand, 165 Bondar, Roberta, 520 Boolean searches, 87 Borden, Sir Robert, 45, 69, 72, 74, 118, 120, 126 Bouchard, Lucien, 443, 446, 447 Bourassa, Henri, 42, 48, 64, 71, 118, 126 Bourassa, Robert, 368, 370, 440, 441, 484 Brain drain, 470-472 Branch plants, 152-153, 391 Braun, Wernher von, 242 Britain air power, 94 and Alaska boundary dispute.

Barnes, Gordie, 237

Bathrooms, modern, 20

Basketball, 46, 174

Bayefsky, Aba, 248

Beach Boys, 328

44-45 appeasement policy, 222 Battle of, 231-232 colonies, 67 and defence of British North America, 3 free trade, 3 investments in Canada, 52-53. 152 and North American colonies, and start of World War I, 69 and Triple Entente, 66 British Columbia 16 1946 woodworkers strike, 352 Co-operative Commonwealth Federation in, 200 discrimination against Asians, 27, 148 economy, 52 "salmon wars," 478, 511, 513 Social Credit in, 199 women's suffrage in, 116 and World War I. 118 British North America economy, 5 map, 2population, 5 British North America Act, 4, 157, 172, 375, 377 British Royal Flying Corps, 94 British Royal Navy, 97 British Secret Intelligence Service, 260 Brittain, Miller, 231 Broadbent, Ed. 440, 509 Brown, George, 1 Brown, James, 328 Brown, Rosemary, 311 Brown, Roy, 95 Buchan, John, 198 Buick Motor Company, 17 Building and Metal Trades Councils, 139 Burns, Major-General E.L.M., 296 Bush pilots, 164 Business cycle, 180-182 "Buying on margin," 187

Cadieux, Leo, 423 Calculators, hand-held, 431 Calgary, 28 Calgary Declaration, 447 Campbell, Kim. 443 Camp X, 259-260, 262-263 Canada 1912 map, 28 at Versailles, 122 and British Empire, 40 centennial year, 306-307 citizenship in, 301 declaration of war, 226 defence, 290-293, 422-423 dependence on American market, 185, 396

economic development and conditions, 73, 113, 125-126, 127, 142, 179-180, 257-258, 273. 309, 339-344, 396-403, 470-475 (see also Depression, economic) foreign affairs, 45-47, 122, 155-157, 225-226, 259, 273, 281-303, 390, 417-420, 422-424, 497-504, 506-507 foreign aid programs, 297, 419-420, 422, 503-504 middle power, 273, 281-283 national anthem, 392-93 new flag, 318-319 nuclear weapons policy, 423 population, 1, 384-85, 455-56 relations with United States, 259, 298-299, 302-303, 342-343, 507, 507-511, 513 and rise of Naziism, 225-226 social programs, 258-259, 347sovereignty, 126, 155-157, 301-303, 507-508 staples economy, 184 and United Nations, 282-285 Canada Council for the Arts, 323 Canada East, 2 Canadarm, 425 Canada-Russia Summit Series, 390-392 Canada West, 2 Canadian Airborne regiment, 502 Canadian Association for the Advancement of Coloured People, 357 Canadian Authors' Association, Canadian Bill of Rights, 309, 353 Canadian Broadcasting Corporation (CBC), 197-198, Canadian Citizenship Act, 301 Canadian Civil Liberties Association, 354 Canadian Co-operation Project, 326-327 Canadian Encyclopedia, 399 Canadian Expeditionary Force (CEF), 72 Canadian Exporters' Association, 54 Canadian Film Development Corporation (Telefilm Canada), 327 Canadian Human Rights Act, Canadian Imperial Bank of Commerce, 166 Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), 297, 420, 422, 498, 503 Canadian Labour Congress

(CLC), 475

Canadian Manufacturers' Association, 53-54 Canadian Multiculturalism Act, Canadian National Committee on Refugees, 221 Canadian National Institute for the Blind, 144 Canadian Nationalist Party, 218 Canadian Pacific Railway, 7, 166 and Chinese labour, 26-27 Canadian Patrol Service, 97 Canadian Radio Broadcasting Commission (CRBC), 197 Canadian Radio-Television and Telecommunications Commission (CRTC), 387 Canadian Space Agency, 426 Canadian Union of Public Employees (CUPE), 475 Canadian War Memorials Fund, Canadian Wheat Board, 113 Canadian Wives' Bureau, 307 Canadian Women's Army Corps (CWAC), 266 Canadian Women's Auxiliary Air Force (CWAAF), 266 CANDU reactor, 428, 429 Capital, foreign, 52-53, 152-153 Capital gain, 183 Cardinal, Harold, 355 Carmichael, Franklin, 151 Carney, Pat, 478 Carr, Emily, 152, 171 Carty, Don, 237 Carty, Gerry, 237 Carver, Brent, 324 Casa Loma, 29 Casson, A.J., 151 Castro, Fidel, 424 Catherwood, Ethel, 174 Cattrel, Nick, 484 Censorship, 111 Central Intelligence Agency (CIA), 260 Central Mortgage and Housing Corporation (CMHC), 335 Central Strike Committee, 139 CF-18 fighter jets, 476 CFRB radio station, 162 Chanak affair, 155-156 Chang, Thomas Ming Swi, 311 Chaplin, Charlie, 20, 170 Chapman, John, 426 Charities, organized, 31-32 Charlottetown Accord, 441, 443 Charter of the French Language (Bill 101), 373-374 Charter of Rights and Freedoms, 376, 377, 411-412 Child care, 268 Children's rights, 504 China, See People's Republic of

China

Chinese Canadians

construction of CPR, 26-27 head tax, 27 immigration exclusion, 148 in politics, 350 and World War I, 76, 108 and World War II, 248, 257 Chinese Consolidated Benevolent Society, 32 Chinese Exclusion Act, 148 Chi, Ray Chu-Jeng, 311 Chrétien, Jean, 443, 447, 484 Christie Pit riot, 218 Chrysler, Walter P., 163 Churchill, Winston, 231, 234, 282 Cirque du Soleil, 444-445 Citizen's Committee of One Thousand, 140 Citizen's Forum on Canada's Future, 441 Civil rights, 357-358 Clark, Austin, 310 Clark, Champ, 47 Clark, Gregory, 85 Clark, Joe, 439, 441 Clarkson, Adrienne, 387, 458, 490 Clemenceau, Georges, 213 Closure, 319, 343 Cobalt (Ontario), 52 Cohen, Leonard, 389 Cold War division of Europe, 290 nature of, 281 and Nazi war criminals, 289-290, 488 and nuclear arms race, 291 Collective bargaining, 138 Collective security, 282 Collip, J.B., 137 Colombo Plan, 297 Coloured Women's Club, 32, 109 Committee for an Independent Canada (CIC), 398, 474 Common currency (with the US), 472-474 Commonwealth of Nations, 156, 302, 500 Communism, 290 Computers animated film, 430-31 and changes in the workplace, 467-470 micro, 430 software development, 430, 431 Conacher, Lionel, 172 Concentration camps, Nazi, 246-248 Confederation factors leading to, 3-4 original provinces, 5 Conscientious objectors, 121, 122 Conscription crises, 118-119, 121, 122, 125, 263-264

Constitution

reform, 440-442, 443, 447

unilateral patriation of, 375-377 Constitution Act, 1867, 4 Constitution Act, 1982, 377 Convoy system, 97, 228, 235, 237 Cools, Anne, 311 Coon Come, Matthew, 410 Co-operative Commonwealth Federation (CCF), 141, 199-201, 258 Co-operatives, 149 Copper, 150, 152 Cordon, Margaret, 116 Corel, 431 Corporations, 53 Council of Canadians, 399 Counterculture, 328 Coupland, Douglas, 459 Courchene, Thomas, 473 Cournoyer, Yvon, 391, 392 Cox, Deborah, 460 Credit buying, 185-187 Creedance Clearwater Revival, 328 Crick, Francis, 337 Crimes against humanity, 488 Cross, James R., 368 Crusz, Rienzi, 310 Cuban Missile Crisis, 293-294 Currency crisis, 472 Currie, General Arthur, 82, 90-92 Custodian of Enemy Property, 270

Dachau, 247 Dambuster raid, 239 Danko, Rick, 329 Dave Clark Five, 328 Davies, Robertson, 389 Davis, Dorothy, 116 D-Day, 240-242 Debt. national, 478-479, 482 Deficit, 478 De Havilland, 257 Democracy, 290 Deng Xiaoping, 419 Depression, economic of 1930s, 180, 184-197, 200-201 in business cycle, 181 causal factors in 1930s, 184-187 stock market crash and, 182 Deschenes Commission (on war criminals), 488 Devil's Brigade, 236 Dhaliwal, Herb, 311 Diabetes, 137 Dictator, 217 Diefenbaker, John, 293-294, 309, 343-344, 350-351 Dieppe raid, 233-234 Dion, Céline, 444, 459 Disney Corporation, 438-439 Displaced Persons (DPs): See Refugees, World War II Distant Early Warning (DEW) Line, 292-293

Distinct society, status of Ouebec, 440, 441 DNA molecule, discovery of 337 Dogfights, 94 Dominion Elections Act, 116 Dominion Land Act. 23 Dominion, status, 40 Dominion Textiles, 53 Doors, the, 328 Dosanjh, Ujjal, 477 Douglas, Major C.H., 199 Douglas, Tommy, 182 Doukhobors, 23, 24, 122, 148 Dower Act (Alberta), 173 Drapeau, Jean, 389 Dressler, Marie, 170, 197 Duceppe, Gilles, 446 Dunkirk, 228 Dunn, James, 323 Duplessis, Maurice, 201, 313-314 Durbin, Deanna, 197 Dutch Canadians, 22, 308 Dylan, Bob, 328-329

Eaton's catalogue, 21 Economic nationalist, 398 Edmonton, 28 Edmonton Grads, 174 Edwards, Henrietta, 172 Edward VII, 17 Egovan, Atom, 459 Einstein, Albert, 219 Eisenhower, Dwight, 240, 343 Ellington, Duke, 168 **Employment Insurance** Program, 407 "Enemy aliens," 76, 110-111, 125, 268-271 Energy crisis, 400-401 Enfield rifle, 74 Enola Gay, 250 Environment protection, 403-404 activism, 412-413 Equalization payments, 432 Ergonomics, 467 Esposito, Phil, 390, 391 Essav. 101 Ethiopia, 222 Ethnic cleansing, 503 Europe before World War I, 68 after World War I, 124 European Union, 473, 475, 514-Expo 67, 306, 355

Factories assembly lines, 162 working conditions, 31 Fairbanks, Douglas, 170 Fairclough, Ellen, 350 Family Allowance, 259, 348, 478 "Family unification" treaty, 419 "Famous Five," 172

Famous Players', 170 Farr, Joseph, 218 Fascism, 218 Federal election of 1911, 48 of 1917, 121-122 of 1921, 143 of 1930, 190 of 1935, 198 of 1957, 343 of 1958, 343-344 of 1968, 360 of 1984, 439-440, 507 of 1993, 443 of 1997, 476, 490 Federal Reserve Board, 473, 474 Ferdinand, Archduke Franz, 65 Fessenden, Reginald, 20 Festival Theatre, 323 Fife, David, 51 Fife, Jane, 51 "Final solution," 247 Finns, 32 Fishing disputes, 511, 513, 515 "Five-cent piece" speech, 190 Flapper, 168 Fleming, Donald M., 298 Floating exchange rate, 472 FLQ crisis, 111 Fokker airplane, 94 Fontaine, Phil. 447, 485 Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), 284-285 Ford, Gerald, 390 Ford, Henry, 17, 162 Ford Motor Company, 339, 466-467 workers strike, 352 Foreign Investment Review Agency (FIRA), 398, 400, 507 Forest industry, 52 Fox, Terry, 404-405 Franca, Celia, 324 France air power, 94 appeasement policy 222 and Balkans crisis, 69 colonial possessions, 67 fall of, 228 and Quebec independence, 316-317 and Triple Entente, 66 Franco, General, 225 La Francophonie, 422, 500 Frank, Anne, 212, 246, 248 Franklin, Aretha, 328 Free the Children, 514 Free trade 1948 draft agreement, 298-299 Agreement with United States (FTA), 48, 508-510

in automobiles, 299

(NAFTA), 510-511

reciprocity, 3, 47

North American Agreement

and social programs, 349

French Canadians, 5-6, 26 in armed forces, 423 in Manitoba, 450-451 minority language rights, 41-42, 449-450 in New Brunswick, 451-453 in Ontario, 451 Front de Libération du Québec (FLQ), 315-316, 368-369 Frye, Northrop, 388 Fung, Henry, 248

G-8.500 Garneau, Marc, 520 Gas, poison, 88-90 Gates, Bill, 518 Gaulle, Charles De, 316-317 Gélines, Gratien, 315 General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), 297-299 General Electric, 53 General Motors, 163 Generation X, 459 Genocide, 506 George, Cecil, 484 George, Dudley, 484 German Canadians, 6, 22, 110, 122 as "enemy aliens," 76 Germany anti-Semitism, 216-217, 219 economic depression, 215 imperial rivalry, 67 invasion of France, 228 invasion of Poland, 223, 228 non-aggression pact with Soviet Union, 223 occupation of Rhineland, 222 occupation of Sudetenland. 223 and Rome-Berlin Axis Pact, territorial expansion in 1930s, and Treaty of Versailles, 213war reparations and economic crisis, 214 World War I surrender, 100 Gerussi, Bruno, 387 Giblin, John, 238 Gibson, William, 518 Gladstone, James, 350 Globalization, 439, 499-507 "Global village," 339, 499 God Save the King, 392 Goebbels, Josef, 246 Good, Mendel, 489 Gordon, Walter, 344 Gosling, James, 472 Gouzenko Affair, 280-281 Government, parliamentary, 6 Governor general, office of, 156 Governor General's Awards, 198, 323

Les Grands Ballets Canadiens, 324 Great Depression. See Depression, economic Great Lakes Water Ouality Agreement, 403-04 Greene, Lorne, 324 Greenpeace, 412-13 Grey, Sir Edward, 69 Grierson, John, 198 Griffith, D.W., 170 Gross National Product (GNP), 204 Groulx, Abbé Lionel Groulx, 142 Group of Seven, 151-152, 171 Guess Who, 328 Gulf War, 502-503

Hadfield, Chris, 520 Haig, General, 89, 90, 92 Haiti, 502 Halibut Treaty, 156 Halifax, explosion, 109-110 Hamilton, 15 Harper, Elijah, 441 Harris, Lawren, 151 Hawkins, Ronnie, 329 Hawks, the, 329 Hayworth, Margaret, 226 Health care, 349-350, 479 Health, federal Department of, 136 Heaps, A.A., 141, 144 Hébert, Anne, 459 Helm, Levon, 329 Henderson, Paul, 390, 391, 392 Hendrix, Jimmi, 328 Herman's Hermits, 328 Hermes satellites, 426 Hewitt, Foster, 160 Hill, Daniel G., 354 Hippies, 328 Hiroshima, 243, 250-251 Hitler, Adolf, 215, 216-217, 226, 245, 246 Hoarding, 112 Hockey, 175, 390-92, 461-62 Hockey Night in Canada, 160, 325 Hollywood. See Popular culture. movies Home Children, British, 24 Hong Kong, 419, 516 Hong Kong, defence of, 232-233 Hoodless, Adelaide, 33 Houde, Camillien, 263 House of Commons, 6 Howe, C.D., 165, 257, 326, 343 Hughes, Colonel Sam, 72, 74, 94, Human rights, 287-288, 504, 506-507 Canadian Act, 407 codes, 353-354 Humphrey, John, 287 Hungarian Canadians, 76, 110

Hungarian Sick-Benefit Society, 32 Hurtig, Mel, 398, 399 Hussein, Saddam, 502 Huston, Walter, 170, 197 Hutterites, 148 Hyde Park Agreement, 259 Hydra, 262 Hydro-Electric Commission of Ontario, 53 Hydroelectric power, 53, 150, 314 Hydrogen bomb, 292 Hydrophones, 98

IMAX films, 326 Immigration in 1930s, 202 in 1980s, 453, 455-456 Act of 1952, 307 Act of 1978, 381-382 American, 22, 25 British, 22, 24 Chinese head tax, 27 discriminatory policies, 148, Eastern European, 24-25 exclusion of Chinese, 148 family class, 382, 456 and free land, 23 from Caribbean, 310 independent class, 381, 456 non-white, 309-10 number of arrivals, 1860-1997, 464 "open door" policy, 22 restrictions on Asian, 27 universal point system, 309, 381 war brides, 307-308 and xenophobia, 147-148, 202 See also Refugees Imo. 109 Imperialism British, 39-40 English Canadians and, 40 French Canadians and, 40 rivalry for colonies, 67 and World War I, 67 Imperial Munitions Board, 113 Imperial Oil, 53 Impressionism, 151 Income tax corporate, 349 personal, 113 Indexing, 401 Indian Act, 354-355 Indian Affairs, federal department of, 6, 145 Indo Canadians, 148 Industrial heartland, 55 Industry, domestic production, 53 Inflation, 138, 214, 400-401 Influenza epidemic, 136 Information Age, 468-69 Infrastructure, 342-344 Injunctions, 138

Insulin, 137 Interactive broadcasting, 427 International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO), 285 International Court of Justice, International Joint Commission, International Military Tribunal, International Monetary Fund (IMF), 298 International Refugee Organization (IRO), 285 International Space Station (ISS), 519 International Women's Year, 407 Internet, 339, 472, 517-519 Internment camp, 268 Inuit, 355, 356 Inuit Broadcasting Corporation (IBC), 427 Inuit Tapirisat of Canada, 486 Inukshuk project, 427 Investor, 183 Ipperwash conflict, 484-485 Iron curtain, 290 Irving, K.C., 340 Isolationism, 156, 225 Israel, 285 Italian Canadians, 6, 32, 76 Italy Allied invasion, 239-240 invasion of Ethiopia, 222

Jackson, A.Y., 151 James Bay Agreement, 409 James Bay projects, 409-410 Jamieson, Alice, 116 Japan military expansion, 222, 223 surrender, 250-251 Japanese Canadians, 76, 148 enfranchisement of, 249, 270 internment of, 111, 268-271 and World War I, 76 and World War II, 248-249 Jazz, 168 Jehovah's Witnesses, 202 Jet propulsion, 242 Jewish Canadians, 76 Jewish refugees, 220-221 See also Anti-Semitism; Holocaust Job losses, 474-75 Job switching, 469 Johnson, Daniel, 316 Johnson, Pierre-Marc, 440 Johnston, Frank, 151 Jones, Jerry, 76 Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, 157, 302 Juno Beach, 241 Jutra, Claude, 315, 387

Rome-Berlin Axis Pact, 228

Kahnawake Mohawks, 482 Kapyong, Battle of, 295 Kidder, Margot, 324 Kielburger, Craig, 514 Killam, Izaak Walton, 323 King-Byng constitutional crisis, King, Martin Luther, Jr., 357 King, William Lyon Mackenzie, 143, 155, 156, 187, 190, 198, 200, 220, 221, 225-226, 227, 263-264, 289, 291, 298-299 Kitchener (Ontario), 110 Klondike gold rush, 45, 50 Knowledge workers, 468-469 Kogawa, Joy, 271 Komagata Maru, 27 Konowal, Philip, 76 Korean War, 294-295 Kosovo, 69, 503 Kristallnacht, 219

Labour child, 29 division of, 162 immigrant, 26 militancy, 138-141, 352, 353 organized, 352-353 in politics, 141 shortage, 456 wartime shortage of, 257 Labrador. See Newfoundland, enters Confederation Lam, David See-Chai, 516 Land mines, anti-personnel aid to victims, 498-499 treaty ban, 498 victims, 497-98 Language rights, French, 41-42 Lapointe, Ernest, 221 Laporte, Pierre, 368 Laurence, Margaret, 325, 389 Laurier, Sir Wilfrid, 38-39, 41-42, 48, 71, 126 Leacock, Stephen, 19 League of Indians, 146 League of Nations, 122, 225, 283 Leduc, Ozias, 43 Led Zepplin, 328 Lend-Lease Act, 259 Lesage, Jean, 314 Lévesque, René, 314, 371, 374, 376, 440, 449 Lightfoot, Gordon, 329 Lighthouse, 328 Lilith Fair, 460 Lillie, Beatrice, 197 Lincoln, Alexander, 405 Lindbergh, Charles A., 165 Lismer, Arthur, 151, 171 Lithuanian Canadians, 32 Lloyd George, David, 90, 213 Loft, Frederick, 146 Longboat, Tom, 21 Luscombe, David, 389

Lusitania, 97

MacArthur, General Douglas, 295 McClelland, Jack, 398 McClelland and Stewart, 399 McClung, Nellie, 33, 116, 117, 172 MacDonald, J.E.H, 151 Macdonald, Sir John A., 1, 38, 312 MacDonnell, R.M., 285 Machine guns, 98-99 MacKenzie, Major General Lewis, 501 Mackenzie-Papineau Battalion, Mackenzie Valley Pipeline Inquiry, 410-411 Mackenzie, William Lyon, 143 McKinney, Louise, 172 McLachlan, Sarah, 459, 460 McLachlin, Beverley, 490, 491 McLaren, Norman, 198 McLaughlin, Sam, 17, 163 Maclean, Steve, 520 MacLennan, Hugh, 315 Macleod, J.R.R., 137 McLuhan, Marshall, 338, 499 McNaughton, General, 228 Macphail, Agnes, 171 Magazine publishing, 512-513 Mahiong, 168 Mak Tak Wah, 311 Malcolm X, 357 Manchuria, 222 Mandela, Nelson, 302 Manhattan Project, 243-244 Manifest Destiny, 3 Manitoba francophone festivals, 451 French language rights, 41-42, 450-51 women's suffrage in, 116 and World War I, 118 See also West, Canadian Manitoba Schools question, 41-Manitoba Theatre Centre, 324 Manning, Preston, 445 Manuel, Richard, 329 Mao Zedong, 418 Maple Leaf Forever, 392 Maple Leaf Milling, 53 Marconi, Guglielmo, 20, 162 Maritimes economic ties to Canada, 15 emigration, 15 Great Depression, 196 regional rights movement, 142 rural society, 15 and World War I, 118 Marquis wheat, 51, 149 Marshall Plan, 297 Martin, Paul, 475, 479, 482 Mascoll, Beverly, 492-493

Massey, Raymond, 197

Massey, Vincent, 157, 302, 323 Mass media, 167, 338 Mass production, 162 "Master race," 216, 219 Masui Yoshio, 311 Maternity leave, 407 Maxwell-Chalmers Company, 163 Mayer, Louis B., 170 May, Wilfred ("Wop"), 95, 164 Meech Lake Accord, 440-441 Meighen, Arthur, 142 Mennonites, 23, 122, 148 Merchant Marine, 235 Métis uprisings, 41 Meyer, Major-General Kurt, 288-Mid-Canada line, 292 Middle power. See Canada, middle power Militarism, 67, 69 Military Service Bill, 121 Milosevic, Slobodan, 506 Mining, 50, 52, 150, 152, 339, 341 Mitchell, Joni, 329 Mitchell, W.O., 389 Mobile Service System (MSS), 419 Model T, 162 Modern Language Association (MLA), citation style, 88 Molotov Plan, 297 Monette, Richard, 324 Monkees, the, 328 Mon Pays, 372, 373 Mont Blanc, 109, 110 Montgomery, Lucy Maud, 19 Montreal, 190 Olympic Games, 389-90 riots against conscription, 121 St. Jean Baptiste riot, 360 urbanization, 27, 166 Moodie, Susanna, 388 Moore, Brian, 324 Moore's Law, 468 Mootoo, Shani, 459 Morrison, Jim, 328 Movies, 20, 168, 170, 197, 198, 387, 459 Mowat, Farley, 324 Muir, Alexander, 392 Mulroney, Brian, 48, 439, 440, 441, 478, 483, 507, 509 Multiculturalism, 379-381 Multilateral agreements, 297 Munich Agreement, 222 Munro, Alice, 324, 388 Murphy, Emily, 33, 116, 171, 172, 173 Murray, Anne. 387 Mussolini, Benito, 218, 225, 246 Mutual aid societies, 32

Nagasaki, 243, 250-251 Naismith, James, 46, 174 Namibia, 501

Nasser, President, 296 National Action Committee on the Status of Women, 406, 440, 443 National Ballet of Canada, 324 National Defence, federal department of, 191 National Energy Program, 401, National Film Board, 198, 325 National Hockey League, 175, 461-462 National Indian Brotherhood. 356-357 National Indian Council, 356 Nationalism defined, 40, 66 economic, 397-400 English-Canadian, 40 French-Canadian, 40-41, 314-National Organization of Immigrant Women of Canada. 406 National Policy, 54 National Progressives, 143 National Research Council (NRC), 423 National Resources Mobilization Act, 263 National Socialists (Nazis), 216-217, 219 National Unity Party, 218 Nation of Islam, 357 Native Council of Canada, 357 Natural resources, and Canadian economy, 50-52, 53 Naval Service Bill, 44-45 Nazis. See National Socialists Negro Citizenship Association, 309-310, 357 Nelligan, Emile, 372 Nelligan, Kate, 324 Neptune Theatre, 324 Netherlands, 228, 245 Neutrality, 69 New Brunswick and Confederation, 6-7 francophone festivals, 452 French language rights, 451trade with United States, 5 See also Maritimes New Democratic Party, 200, 398 Newfoundland enters Confederation, 312-313 Great Depression in, 197 rejection of Confederation, 7 World War I casualties, 90 Newman, Peter, 474 Nickel, 152 Niobe, 72 Nisga'a Treaty, 488 No-man's land, 83 Normandy landing, 240-242

North American Air Defence

Command (NORAD), 292-293, 423, 500 North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), 500, 510-511 North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), 290-292, 423, 500 Northern Telecom, 426 "North-South dialogue," 419 North Star aircraft, 339 Northwest Passage, 303, 507 Nova Scotia 1947 fishers strike, 352 and Confederation, 6 francophone festivals, 452 trade with United States, 5 See also Maritimes Nova Scotia Rifles, 106th Battalion, 75 Nuclear power, 428-30 threat, 291, 292, 293, 293-294 Nunavut, 486 Nuremberg Laws, 219 Nurses, 73, 115

O Canada, 392-393 October Crisis, 369-390 Official Languages Act. 320 Official Languages Act (Quebec), 370-371 Ogdensburg Agreement, 259 Oil, 150, 339, 400-401 Okalik, Paul, 486 Oka standoff, 482-484 Old Age Pension Act, 349 Oliphant, Betty, 324 Olympic Games, 389-390 OMNIMAX films, 326 Ondaatie, Michael, 459 One Big Union, 139 One-China policy, 390 Ontario, 5 economic centre, 16, 55 Fair Employment Practices Act. 353 francophone festivals, 452 French language rights, 42, 451 and Great Depression, 196, 198 Human Rights Code, 353 Human Rights Commission (OHRC), 353-354 natural resources, 52 nuclear power, 428-429 Racial Discrimination Act, 353 women's suffrage, 116 Ontario Hydro, 428 On-to-Ottawa Trek, 191 Operation Husky, 239 Operation Jubilee, 233 Oppenheimer, Robert, 243 Order of Canada, 327 Organization of American States (OAS), 500

Organization for Economic Cooperation (OECD), 298, 500 Organization of Oil Exporting Countries (OPEC), 400 Ortona, 240 Osborne, Sergeant-Major John, 233 Ottawa Process, 498 Ouimet, Ernest, 20

Pacific Rim countries, 418, 419 Pacific salmon dispute, 511, 513 Pacifism, 122, 148 Padlock Law, 202 Parizeau, Jacques, 446 Parlby, Irene, 172 Parti-Acadien, 453 Parti Québécois, 317, 371, 373-374, 440, 443, 445-446 Passchendaele, 92 Patriation, constitutional, 375-377 Pay equity, 407 Payette, Julie, 520 Peacekeeping, 295-296, 423-24, 500-502 Peacemaking, 502-503 Pearl Harbor, 232 Pearson, Lester, 284-285, 294, 296, 317, 344, 351, 420 Pegahamagabow, Francis, 75 Pellat, Sir Henry, 29 Pension Act, 144, 349 Pensions, 144-145, 349, 401 People's Republic of China, 344 human rights abuse, 504 and Montreal Olympics, 390 recognition of, 417-418 Persons case, 171-172, 173 Petro-Canada, 400, 403 Phonograph, 20 Pickford, Mary, 20 Pier 21, 309 Pinetree Radar System, 292 Pinsent, Gordon, 324 Plastic, 337-339 Plebiscite, conscription, 263 Plummer, Christopher, 324 Polio vaccine, 337 Polish Canadians, 22, 32, 108, 308 Political Equality League, 117 Pollution Probe, 412 Popular culture American influence, 167-168, 386-387 Black influence, 168, 328 Canadian content, 387 fads, 167-168 fashion, 168 movies, 168, 170, 197, 387, 459 music, 168, 327-329, 387, 459, 460 radio, 161-162, 197 slang expressions, 169 television, 387 See also Arts and culture

Potlach, 147 Poverty during "Dirty Thirties," 179, 187, 191-195 and social inequality, 29 Prairies. See West, Canadian Presley, Elvis, 327 Prince Edward Island prohibition, 136 rejection of Confederation, 7 See also Maritimes Princess Patricia's Light Infantry, 295 Prince, Tommy, 236 Princip, Gavrilo, 65 Prisoners of war, 233 Profiteering, 112 Prohibition, 135-136 Propaganda, 114, 255 Protectionism, 54, 185, 190 Provincial rights, 42, 263 Pulp and paper industry, 149, 341

Ouakers, 122 Ouebec, 5 1980 referendum, 374-375 1995 referendum, 49, 445-447 alienation of, 142 and Boer War, 44 Confederation, 7 and conscription in World War I, 118-19, 121, 122, 125 and conscription in World War II, 263-264 as distinct society, 440, 441 as economic centre, 16, 55 French language laws and immigrants, 370, 373-374 Great Depression in, 190, 191, independence movement, 316-317, 369-375, 445-447 language laws, 370-371, 373-374, 442 and minority French language rights, 42 natural resources, 52 and Naval Bill, 44-45 provincial election of 1976, 371 provincial election of 1985, 440 provincial election of 1994, 445-445 provincial flag, 318 Ouiet Revolution, 314-315 and Red River uprising, 41 rural society, 15 separatism, 43, 315-316, 386-"special status," 316 and unilateral separation, 447-Queen, of England, constitution-

al role, 6

racism, 25, 26-27, 75, 453-455, 502 See also Anti-Semitism; Immigration; Japanese Canadians, internment of; Xenophobia Radar, 242 Radarsat, 519, 521 Radio, 20, 161-162, 197-198 Railways and Confederation, 4 transcontinental, 7 Rainbow, 72 Ralliement des Creditistes, 199 Rand Formula, 353 Ration cards, 256 Rationing during World War II, 256 voluntary food, 112 Reagan, Ronald, 508, 509 Reaves, Bill, 431 Rebellion of 1885, 41 Recession, 181 Reciprocity, 3, 47 See also Free trade Records, 20 Recovery, economic, 181, 182 Red Baron. See Richthofen, Manfred von Red Fife, 51 Red Wing, 18 Referendums conscription plebiscite, 263 Newfoundland, 313 Quebec sovereignty 1980 referendum, 374-375 Quebec sovereignty 1995 referendum, 49, 445-447 See also Plebiscite Reform party, 402, 443, 445, 471, 476 Refugees, 287 from Latin American countries, 383-384 as immigrant class, 382 Jewish, 220-221, 285 public reaction to, 457 status, 456-57 Vietnamese, 382-83, 456 World War II, 285, 287, 289, 308-309 Regina riot, 191 Regional Economic Expansion, Department of (DREE), 342 Regionalism Atlantic Canada, 476 and Confederation, 6-7 economic disparity, 54-55, 341-342, 476 Maritimes, 142 Ouebec, 162 western alienation, 143, 401-402, 476, 478 Regulation 17, 42, 451 Reid, Escott, 291

Reid, Kate, 324

Relief, 187, 190-192

camps for unemployed, 191 Report, research, 101-102 Residential schools, 145-146, 355, 356, 485 Richler, Mordecai, 325, 389 Richthofen, Manfred von, 95 Riel, Louis, 41 Riel, Patrick, 75 Riot Act, 141 Robertson, Norman, 221 Robertson, Robbie, 329 Robichaud, Louis J., 453 Roblin, Sir Rodmond, 117 Robota, Rosa, 247-248 Robotics, 427 Robson, H.A., 141 Rock 'n' roll. 327-329 Rogers, Ted, 162 Rolling Stones, 328 Roman Catholic Church, 314, 315 Rome-Berlin Axis Pact, 223 Rommel, Field Marshall Erwin, 240, 257 Roosevelt, Franklin, 250, 259, 282, 283 Roosevelt, Theodore, 45 Rosenfeld, Fanny "Bobbie," 174 Ross rifle, 74 Royal Air Force, 231-232, 238 Royal Canadian Air Force, 94, 231-232, 235, 238 Royal Canadian Mounted Police, 438-39 Royal Canadian Navy, 241 Royal Commission Aboriginal Peoples (RCAP), on Bilingualism and Biculturalism, 317-318, 379 on Canada's economic prospects, 344 on National Development in the Arts, Letters, and Sciences, on the Status of Women in Canada, 359, 405-406 Royal Naval Air Service, 97 Royal Naval Canadian Volunteer Reserve, 97 Royal Winnipeg Ballet, 324 Roy, Gabrielle, 324, 389 Russia and Balkans crisis, 69 empire, 67 revolution, 139 space program, 519 and Triple Entente, 66 See also Soviet Union Russians, 22, 23 Rwanda, 502, 506 Ryan, Claude, 375, 398

Sabia, Laura, 406 Sabotage, fears of, 109, 110-111 Sainte-Marie, Buffy, 329 St. Jean Baptiste riot, 360 St. Laurent, Louis, 264, 291 St. Lawrence Seaway, 342-343 St. Louis incident, 221 Salk, Jonas, 337 Sanitation, 20-21 Saskatchewan, 16 Bill of Rights, 353 French language rights, 42 women's suffrage, 116 and World War I. 118 See also West, Canadian Satellites communications, 426-427 Earth Observation, 519, 521 Saul, John Ralston, 458 Saunders, Charles, 51 Sauvé, Jeanne, 490 Scandinavians, 6, 22 Schreyer, Edward, 393 Schrubb, Alfie, 21 Scott, Duncan Campbell, 145, 147 Scott, Thomas, 41 Secondary industries, 185 Self-employed workers, 469 Senate, 6 Separatism, 43, 315-316 Serbia, 66, 69 Shatner, William, 324 Shearer, Norma, 170, 197 Shell shock, 85 Shields, Carol, 459 Sick building syndrome, 461 Sifton, Clifford, 22, 47 Sikhs, 27 Silver Dart, 18-19 Simonds, General Guy, 239 Sinden, Harry, 390 Six Nations, 147 Slotin, Louis, 244 Smallwood, Joseph R., 312-313 Snowmobile, 165 Social Credit, 199 Socialists, 200 Social reform movements, 33-34 Soldier Settlement Act, 144 Somalia, 501, 502 Somme, Battle of, 89 Sopwith Camel, 94, 99 Sound echoes, 98 Sovereignty association, 374 Soviet Union, 223, 246, 419 and Cold War, 281, 290-291 foreign aid program, 297 and Korean War, 294 nuclear threat, 291 space race, 424 and Warsaw Pact, 292 See also Russia Space international cooperation in, 519-521

race, 424

technology, 425-426

Space Station Remote Manipulator System (SSRMS). Spar Aerospace, 425, 426 Split-run magazines, 512 Sports amateur, 172-175 hockey, 175, 390-392, 461-462 Montreal Olympics, 389-390 professional, 175 Sports Illustrated, 512-513 SS Manhattan, 302, 303 Stacey, Colonel C.P., 234 Stalin, Joseph, 282, 290 Stanfield, Robert, 360 Staple products, 184-185 Statute of Westminster, 157, 302 Steel Company of Canada, 53 Stein, Gertrude, 459 Stelco strike, 352 Stephenson, William, 260 Stewart, Jane, 485 Stockbroker, 183 Stock certificate, 183 Stock exchange, 183 Stock market crash, 182, 187 Stocks, 183, 186-187 Stompin' Tom Connors, 387 Stormtroopers (SA), 217 Stowe, Emily, 33 Stratford Shakespearean Festival, 323-324 Strike, 138 Strikebreakers, 138 Stronach, Frank, 340-341 Stubbs, George, 189 Stunt flyers, 164 Submarines, 97, 98 Suburbs, 29, 167, 335-336 Sudbury (Ontario), 52, 152 Suez Crisis, 295-296 Suffrage movement, 116-118 Supreme Court of Canada, 302 Sustainable development, 420 Sutherland, Donald, 324 Synthetic Aperture Radar (SAR), 521

Taiwan, 390, 417 "Talkies." See Movies Tandy, Jessica, 324 Tariffs, 47, 54, 185, 190, 298, 299 Taxes, 113, 227, 349 Telecommuting, 468 Telefilm Canada, 327 Telephones, 19-20 Television, 325, 336 Telidon system, 431 Theatre New Brunswick, 324 Thirsk, Bob, 520 Three Mile Island, 429-430 Thrift Stamps, 112 Tinehta, Kahn, 355 Tkachuk, David, 438 Tobin, Brian, 515

Toronto Christie Pit riot, 218 economic centre, 166 urbanization, 15, 27, 166 Toronto Electric Light Company. Totalitarian state, 217 Tourism, 163-164 Trade Asian Pacific, 515-517 with China, 419 with European Union, 514-515 globalization of, 499 Team Canada missions, 513-514 Trades and Labour Congress (TLC), 139 Trans-Canada Airlines, 165 Trans-Canada Highway, 344 Trans-Canada pipeline, 343 Transfer payments, 479 Transistor, 337 Transportation airplanes, 18-19 automobiles, 17-18, 162-164 bicycles, 17 of freight, 164 horse-drawn, 2, 17 Treaty No. 6, 355, 409 Treblinka, 247 Tremblay, Michel, 389 Trench warfare, 83-85 Triple Entente, 66-67 Trough, economic, 181 Trudeau, Pierre, 111, 355, 359-360, 375, 375-376, 396, 398, 418, 419, 422, 423, 438, 440, 443 Truman, Harry, 250 Tryggvason, Biarni, 520 Tungavik Federation of Nunavik. 486 Turner, John, 439, 440, 509 Twain, Shania, 459 Tyendenaga Reserve, 108

U-boat (Unterseeboot), 97, 234-235, 237 Ukrainian Canadians, 6, 22, 24-25, 32, 76, 110 Ultimatum, 69 Unemployment, 180 in 1970s, 385 and business cycle, 181 during "Dirty Thirties," 187-189, 191-193 in Germany, 215 single men, 191 Unemployment insurance, 144, 200, 259, 479 Unilateral separation of Quebec, Supreme Court decision on, Union Government, 121 Union Nationale, 201-202, 313, 316

Unions, 33, 202

See also Labour United Nations, 500, 501 Emergency Force (UNEF), 296 Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), 284-285 formation of, 282-283 and human rights, 287-288 International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF). 285 International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO), 285 International Refugee Organization (IRO), 285 and Korean War, 294-295 Relief and Rehabilitation Administration, 285 and war refugees, 285, 287 World Health Organization (WHO), 285 United States boundary disputes, 45-46 and British colonies, 2 civil rights struggle, 357-358 and Cold War, 291, 293-294 colonial possessions, 67 and Cuba, 424 cultural influence (see Popular culture) entry into World War I, 97 investments in Canada, 53, 152-153, 344-345, 397-98 and land mine treaty, 498 military threat. 3 prohibition, 135 trade with, 5 and UN, 282, 283 and World War II, 232, 238, 240-241, 250, 251 Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 287-288 Uranium, 243, 339 Urbanization, 15-16, 27-29, 166-167 creation of suburbs, 20 home ownership, 335 suburban lifestyle, 335-336

V-1 "buzz bomb," 242 V-2 rocket, 242 Valcartier (Quebec), 74 Valentino, Rudolph, 170 Vancouver, 15, 27, 186 economic centre, 16 race riots, 27 Vancouver East Cultural Centre, 389 Van Horne, William, 47 Vanier, Georges, 286 Vanier, Jean, 286 Vanier, Pauline, 286 Varley, Fred, 151 VE Day, 246 Versailles, Treaty of, 122-123, 213-214

Vickers Mark 1 machine gun, 99 Victory Bonds, 112, 257 Vigneault, Gilles, 372 Vimy Ridge, 82, 90-92 Virtual Reality, 339

Waffle Manifesto, 398 Wage gap, 171, 407 War brides, 307-308 crimes, 288, 488-490, 506-507 crimes tribunal, 506 total, 107, 256 War Measures Act, 110, 111, 218, 227, 268, 369 Warner, Jack, 170 War Savings Stamp, 112 Warsaw Pact, 292 Wartime Elections Act. 121, 122 Wartime Prices and Trade Board (WPTB), 256 War Trades Board, 113 War veterans, 144-145 War Veterans Allowance Act. 144 Watkins, Mel, 398 Watson, James, 337 Waxman, Al, 387 Welfare state, 200, 258-259, 273, 347-349 West, Canadian economy, 342 and energy crisis, 401-402 Great Depression, 188-189, 193, 196 immigration, 22-23 See also Regionalism; Wheat Western Fascists, 218 Western Front, 88 Western Reform Association. 476, 478 Wheat boom, 50 economy, 16, 149, 185, 341 farming, 22, 149 sales to China, 344, 419 strains, 51 Whittaker, William, 218 Williams, Percy, 172 Wilson, Bertha, 490 Wilson, Cairine, 172 Wilson, Woodrow, 122, 213 Windsor (Ontario), 186 Winnipeg, 15, 27, 148 Winnipeg General Strike, 134-135, 139-141 Women Aboriginal, 236, 355 in armed forces, 266 of colour, 32, 108-109, 171, 406 fashion, 17 and glass ceiling, 490 legal status of, 171-172, 173

mainstream feminism, 358

national organizations, 406

movement, 358-359

and pay equity for federal civil servants, 490-91 and poverty, 191 radical feminism, 358-359 sports, 173-175, 461 status of, 405-6 suffrage, 116-118 union membership, 353 wage gap, 171, 407 wartime volunteers, 268 workforce participation, 29, 31, 115, 267-68, 407 and World War I, 73, 108-9, 115and World War II, 236, 266-268 Women's Christian Temperance Union (WCTU), 33, 117, 135 Women's Institute, 33 Women's Patriotic League, 108 Women's Peace Party, 122 Women's Royal Canadian Naval Service (WRCNS), 266 Wonder, Stevie, 328 Woodsworth, J.S., 141, 144, 199-

200, 225, 226 Workers, living conditions, 28 Workers' compensation, 347 Work teams, 467 World Bank, 298 World Health Organization (WHO), 285 World Trade Organization (WTO), 299, 475, 500 World War I air warfare, 94-96, 98 battles, 88-92 Canadian navy, 72, 97 casualties, 90-91, 125 causes of, 66-69 and conscription crisis, 118-119, 121, 122 government financing of, 112initial public reaction, 64, 71-72 Last Hundred Days, 100 military training, 73-74 naval warfare, 97-98 recruiting campaigns, 72-73

trench warfare, 83-85 World War II air war, 231-232, 238-239 and atomic bomb, 242-243, 250-251 Canadian armed forces, 227, casualties, 239, 240, 241, 245, conscription crisis, 263-264 D-Day, 240-242 defence of Hong Kong, 232-Dieppe raid, 233-234 Dunkirk, 228 European arena, 245-246 German territorial expansion, 222, 222 Italian campaign, 239-240 Pacific war, 248-248, 250-251 prelude to, 213-215 public reaction, 226 secret warfare, 248-249, 259-260, 262-263

trans-Atlantic shipping, 235, 237 U-boat threat, 234-235, 238 wartime government spending, by province, 261 wartime industrial production, 257-258, 272-273 Wright brothers, 18

Xenophobia, 140, 147-148, 202

"Yellow dog contracts," 141 Yeutter, Clayton, 509 Yom Kippur War, 400, 424 Young, Neil, 387 Ypres, Battle of, 88-90 Yugoslav Canadians, 260 Yugoslavia, former, 501

Zeppelin, 94 Zhou Enlai, 418

Photo Credits

t=top; c-centre; b=bottom; l=left; r=right
CTA=City of Toronto Archives
CWM=Canadian War Museum
Glenbow=Glenbow Archives, Calgary, Alberta, Canada
Granger=The Granger Collection, New York
NAC=National Archives of Canada
TRL=Toronto Reference Library

1 Painting by David Craig; 3 Courtesy of the Royal British Columbia Museum, Victoria, BC PN242; 5 "Behind Bonsecours Market, Montreal" (1866) William Raphael, National Gallery of Canada/6673, purchased 1957; 8 (t) RCMP Centennial Museum, (c) Rogers Communication Inc./The Confederation Life Gallery of Canadian History, (b) Glenbow NA104-1; 9 (t) Saskatchewan Archives Board R-A2294, (acl) British Columbia Archives D-07548, (cr) Glenbow/NA-644-11, (bl) Canada Post, (br) British Columbia Archives A-09684; 10-11 Reprinted with permission of the Hudson's Bay Company from the HBC Corporate Collection: 12 (t to b) NAC/PA-13133; The Surrender of Commander Botha to the Second Canadian Dragoon by Hider/CN#87048/CWM, NAC/PA-143204, A.E. Silver Dart by Robert W. Bradford with the permission of the National Aviation Museum, Ottawa, Canada, NAC/C 11299, NAC/C-38706; 14 NSI Limited; 16 Log-cutting in the Woods by Homer Ransford Watson, R.C.A./The Montreal Museum of Fine Arts, Gift of Lord Strathcona and his family/Photo: The Montreal Museum of Fine Arts, Photo Brian Merrett; 17 Baldwin/TRL/89-B2; 18 (t) Vancouver Public Library/2568, (b) National Aviation Museum, Ottawa, Canada; 19 (t) NAC/C-11299, (b) Musée McCord d'histoire canadienne, Montréal/McCord Museum of Canadian History, Montreal; 20 NAC/C-5945; 21 Canada's Sports Hall of Fame; 22 NAC/C-85854; 25 NAC/C-38706; 27 Courtesy of the family of Yip Sai Gai; 29 Provincial Archives of Manitoba/N-7935; 32 NAC/PA-126710; 33 (t, c, b) pastel by William Armstrong/J. Ross Robertson Collection/T10913/TRL, CTA/SC244-137, 33 NAC/C-4256; 34 (t, c, b) National Library of Canada/C-030950, Glenbow/NA-1104-1, NAC/C-38706; 38 NAC/PA-13133; 40 © Canada Post Corporation. Reproduced with Permission; 41 NAC/C-1879; 42 NAC/C-5110; 43 The Choquette Farm, Beloeil by Ozias Leduc/Musee du Quebec/© Ozias Leduc/SOCRAC (Montreal) 2000; 44 (t) The Surrender of Commander Botha to the Second Canadian Dragoon by Hider/CN#87048/CWM, (b) Naval Service of Canada The Canadian Navy Presents Great Attractions to Men and Boys/Maritime Command Museum/CN#56-05-11-070/CWM; 46 ©Canada Post Corporation, 1991. Reproduced with Permission; 48 NAC/NL-1054; 49 Provincial Archives of Manitoba/N-9504; 50 NAC/1366-8: 51 © Canada Post Corporation, 1988. Reproduced with Permission: 54 NAC/C-121146; 60-61 The Defence of Sanctuary Wood by Kenneth Keith Forbes/CN#8157/CWM; 62 (t to b) Granger, CTA/SC244-824, BC Archives/B-6791, The Taking of Vimy Ridge, Easter Monday, 1917 by Richard Jack/CN#8178/CWM, CTA/SC244-2450, Royal Canadian Military Institute from the "Years of Agony" Canada's Illustrated Heritage, 1977, NSL Natural Science of Can. Ltd., 254 Bartley Dr., Toronto, ON M4A 1G4; 64 NAC/C-14952; 66 Granger; 68 Granger; 72 CTA/SC244-824; 73 NAC/PA-107281; 74 NAC/C-36116; 75 (I) NAC/PA-41366, (r) Nimbus Publishing; 76 (l) Japanese Canadian Cultural Centre, (r) NAC/PA-364; 82 CP Picture Archive (Michel Spingler); 84 Mary Evans Picture Library; 85 NAC/PA-2468; 88 Granger; 90 Imperial War Museum/Q70164-6; 91 Mary Evans Picture Library; 92 (t) NAC/PA-1473, (b) The Taking of Vimy Ridge, Easter Monday, 1917 by Richard Jack/CN#8178/CWM; 93 (t, c, b) Women Making Shells by Henrietta Mabel May/CN#8409/CWM, Stretcher Bearer Party by Cyril Henry Barraud/CN#8021/CWM, Canadian Gunners in the Mud by A.T.J. Bastien/CN#8095; 94 Granger; 95 Royal Canadian Military Institute from the "Years of Agony" Canada's Illustrated Heritage, 1977, NSL Natural Science of Can. Ltd., 254 Bartley Dr., Toronto ON M4A 1G4; 96 NAC/PA-122515; 98 Imperial War Museum./Q18638; 100 NAC/PA-003572; 107 Baldwin/TRL; 108 The Coloured Women's Club of Montreal/Roy States Collection; 109 CTA/SC244-2450; 111 NAC/PA-170620; 112 Saturday Night; 114 (I to r) Baldwin/TRL, Baldwin/TRL, NAC/C-29484, Soldiers of the Soil/Harris Litho Co Ltd/CN#56-05-11-021/CWM; 115 NAC/C-18863; 116 BC Archives/B-6791; 117 NAC/PA-30212; 119 NAC/C-6859; 120 NAC/PA-117663; 123 NAC/C-241; 125 CTA/SC244-727; 130-131 Falls, Montreal River by J.E.H. MacDonald/1920/oil on canvas/121.9 x 153 cm/Art Gallery of Ontario, Toronto; 132 (t to b) Provincial Archives of Manitoba/Foote/N-1954, City of Edmonton Archives/EA-10-1996, National Gallery of Canada,

Ottawa/Reproduced courtesy of Mrs. D. McKay/FH. Varley Estate. Glenbow/NC-6-12955, Glenbow/NA-4507-1, The New York Times/NYT Pictures; 134 Provincial Archives of Manitoba/Foote/N-1954; 136 © Bettmann/CORBIS; 137 University of Toronto Archives; 138 Vancouver Public Library/1276; 140 NAC/C-34020; 142 NAC/C-37329; 143 NAC/PA-138867; 144 NAC/C-21247; 146 (I) Saskatchewan Archives Board R-A8223-1, (r) Saskatchewan Archives Board R-A8223-2; 147 Courtesy of the Woodland Cultural Centre; 149 NAC/PA-143204; 150 Glenbow/NB-16-601; 151 (t) National Gallery of Canada, Ottawa/Reproduced courtesy of Mrs. D. McKay/F.H. Varley Estate, (b) Emily Carr 1871-1945 A Haida Village circa 1929/oil on canvas/82,7 x 60,7 cm/McMichael Canadian Art Collection/Gift of Dr. and Mrs. Max Stern, Dominion Art Gallery, Montreal, 1974.18.1; 156 University of Toronto Archives/B87-0082; 160 Hockey Hall of Fame; 162 NAC/C-80917; 163 Ford Canada/Historical Section; 165 Musée J. Armand Bombardier; 166 Glenbow/NA-1258-22; **167** BC Archives/ D-05656; **168** CTA/SC244-1902; 170 (t) Granger, (b) Granger; 172 Famous 5 Foundation/Mark Mennie; 173 City of Edmonton Archives/EA-10-1996; 174 (t) NAC/PA-150983, (b) Provincial Archives of Alberta/A11,419; 175 T10161/TRL; 179 National Gallery of Canada, Ottawa; 180 NAC/PA-133260; 182 UPI/Bettman; 186 NAC/C-30811; 187 Archives of Ontario; 188 (t) Glenbow/NC-6-12955, (b) NAC/PA-139647; 189 (t, c, b) Glenbow/ND-3-6742, CTA/SC244-1683, Glenbow/NA-2434-1; **190** Glenbow/NA-4507-1; 191 NAC/PA-35133; 197 NAC/DV-4883; 200 NAC/C-57365; 201 NAC/PA-129184; 208-209 Dieppe Raid by Charles Comfort/CN#12276/CWM; 210 (t to b) NAC/C-11452, Canadian Forces Photo, NAC/PA-137013, NAC/PA-137013, © Bettmann/CORBIS; 212 © UPI/Bettmann/CORBIS; 215 Bildarchiv preussischer kulturbesitz; 216 NAC/C-11452; 217 © Bettman/CORBIS; 218 Canadian Jewish Congress National Archives; 220 (t) Bildarchiv preussischer kulturbesitz, (b) CTA/SC266-30542; 221 The New York Times/NYT Pictures; 223 Bildarchiv preussischer kulturbesitz; 225 NAC/PA-119013; 226 TRL; 227 NAC/C-38723; 231 Night Target, Germany by Miller Brittain/CN#10889/CWM; 232 Canadian Forces Photo; 233 Department of Defense; 236 CP Picture Archive; 237 Collection of Don Carty; 238 TRL; 239 Canadian Forces Photo; 239 Canadian Forces Photo; 241 NAC/PA-137013; 243 Bildarchiv preussischer kulturbesitz; 244 Provincial Archives of Manitoba/Jewish Historical Society Collection/11.363; 245 NAC/DND Army 49610; 247 Belsen Concentration Camp - Malnutrition No. 2 by Aba Bayefsky/CN#10843/CWM; 249 National Film Board of Canada; 250 (t) © Bettmann/CORBIS, (b) © Bettmann/CORBIS; 255 (t) Rare Book Department, McGill University, (b) NAC/Government of Canada/C-33446; 256 NAC/Montreal Gazette/PA108300; 258 National Aviation Museum; 260 (I) Brad Cruxton, (b) Brad Cruxton; 262 Vancouver Public Library/44965; 263 Halifax Herald; 265 (l, c, r) Baldwin/TRL, Baldwin/TRL, NAC/Government of Canada/C-90883; 266 NAC/C-143027; **267** (t) Private Roy, Canadian Women's Army Corps by Molly Lamb Bobak/CN#12082/CWM, (b) Maintenance Jobs in the Hanger by Paraskeva Clark/CN#14085/CWM; 269 NAC/C-46350; 271 Joy Kogawa/John Flanders; 273 © UPI/Bettmann/CORBIS; 276-277 Confedspread by Joyce Wieland/National Gallery of Canada, Ottawa/© The Estate of Joyce Wieland; 278 (t to b) NAC/Montreal Gazette/PA-129625, Contact by Edward Zuber/CN#90036/CWM, NAC/PA-128080, NAC/PA-123915, CP Picture Archive, Darrell/The Toronto Star; 280 NAC/Montreal Gazette/PA-129625; 282 NAC/C-23259; 283 NAC/C-20129; 285 Bildarchiv preussischer kulturbesitz: 286 CP Picture Archive; 288 United Nations; 289 CP Picture Archive (Barney J. Gloster); 292 Doug Wright/Hamilton Spectator; 293 Toronto Star Syndicate; 294 Winnipeg Free Press; 295 Contact by Edward Zuber/CN#90036/CWM; **296** NAC/C-94168; **299** Toronto Sun Syndicate; 303 Fisheries and Oceans Canada; 306 Malak Photography, Ottawa; 308 NAC/PA-147114; 309 Pier 21; 311 CP Picture Archive (Tom Hanson); 313 NAC/PA-128080; 314 The Circular Pass, Nest of Aeroplanes by Paul-Emile Borduas/National Canada/Purchased 1982 with the assistance of a grant from the Government of Canada under the tems of the Cultural Property Export and Import Act; 316 NAC/Montreal Gazette/PA-113485; 317 CP Picture

Archive; 319 CP Picture Archive; 321 Canadian Museum of Civilization/S89-1709; 322 Women Juggling Stones by Pitseolak Ashoona/1968/Reproduced with the permission of the West Baffin Eskimo Co-operative Ltd., Cape Dorset, Nunavut; 323 Scott Wishart/Stratford Festival; 324 CP Picture Archive (Hans Deryk); 325 NAC/PA111390; **327** © Bettmann/CORBIS; **328** © Springer/Bettmann Film Archive/CORBIS; 329 CP Picture Archive; 334 NAC/PA-111378; 337 (t) Granger, (b) CP Picture Archive; 338 CP Picture Archive; 340 CP Picture Archive (Bill Becker); 341 CP Picture Archive (Colin McConnell); 343 Ontario Power Generation; 347 NAC/C-36219; 350 Dick Hemingway; 350 CP Picture Archive; 351 CP Picture Archive; 352 NAC/C-57897; 355 NAC/PA-123915; 356 CP Picture Archive; 357 (t) Communist Party of Canada/NAC/PA-93521, (b) Communist Party of Canada/NAC/PA-93536; 358 CP Picture Archive; 360 Darrell/The Toronto Star; 364-365 A Day in the Street by Janet Mitchell/The Estate of Janet Mitchell; 366 (t to b) CP Picture Archive, CP Picture Archive, CP Picture Archive, CP Picture Archive; 368 CP Picture Archive; 370 CP Picture Archive; 371 CP Picture Archive; 372 Toronto Sun Syndicate; 375 CP Picture Archive; 376 CP Picture Archive; 380 CP Picture Archive (Andrew Clark); 382 CP Picture Archive: 383 Rick Chard/Maclean's; 387 (t) CP Picture Archive (Barry Gray), (b) CP Picture Archive (Murray Bray); 388 (1) CP Picture Archive (Rick Chard), (r) Canadian Museum of Contemporary Photography; 391 (t) The Toronto Star/F Lennon, (b) The Globe & Mail; 396 Christine Alexiou; 398 Reprinted with permission – The Toronto Star Syndicate. Copyright: V. Victor Roschkov; 399 CP Picture Archive: 401 Petro-Canada; 404 CP Picture Archive; 405 CP Picture Archive; 406 CP Picture Archive (Armand Legault); 407 CP Picture Archive (Jim Young); 410 Greenpeace/Ryan Remiorz; 411 CP Picture Archive/News of the North; 413 © 2000 Greenpeace/Cunningham; 417 CP Picture Archive; 418 CP Picture Archive; 420 CIDA Photo; 422 © Canada Post Corporation, 1995, Reproduced with Permission; 423 Department of National Defense/Sgt. David Snashall; 424 CP Picture Archive (Lund): 425 Canadian Space Agency; 427 Inuit Broadcasting Corporation; 429 Ontario Power Generation; **431** (t) National Film Board of Canada, (b) Everett Collection; 434-435 My Daughter's First Steps by Napatchie Pootoogook/lithograph, 1990/Reproduced with the permission of the West Baffin Eskimo Co-operative Ltd., Cape Dorset, Nunavut; 436 CP Picture Archive (Shaney Komulainen); 436 CP Picture Archive; 436 Canadian Space Agency; 436 CP Picture Archive (Fred Chartrand); 436 CP Picture Archive (Fred Chartrand); 438 Josh Beutel; 441 CP Picture Archive (Fred Chartrand); 442 CP Picture Archive; 444 CP Picture Archive (Paul Chiasson); 446 Christopher Moore/Maclean's; 447 CP Picture Archive (Ryan Remiorz); 452 Barrett & Mackay Photography Inc.; 455 CP Picture Archive (Kevin Frayer); 457 CP Picture Archive (John McKay); 458 CP Picture Archive (Fred Chartrand); 459 CP Picture Archive (Kevin Frayer); 460 CP Picture Archive (Jenna Hauck); 451 CP Picture Archive (Frank Gunn); 466 Pedro Coll/First Light; 468 Stone/Kaluzny/Thatcher; 471 Mike Graston; 475 CP Picture Archive (Eric Draper); 476 CP Picture Archive (Tom Hanson); 477 CP Picture Archive (Adrian Wyld); 479 Dick Hemingway; 482 CP Picture Archive (Ryan Remiorz); 483 CP Picture Archive (Shaney Komulainen); 484 CP Picture Archive (Moe Doiron); 485 CP Picture Archive (Fred Chartrand); 487 Silavut, Nunavut by Kenojuak Ashevak/lithograph, 1999/Reproduced with the permission of the West Baffin Eskimo Co-operative Ltd., Cape Dorset, Nunavut; 489 Jeff Pappone; 491 CP Picture Archive (Tom Hanson); 492 (1) CP Picture Archive (Shaun Best), (r) CP Picture Archive (Peter Tym); 497 CIDA Photo: Roger LeMoyne; 498 CP Picture Archive (Giovanni Diffidenti); 502 Dept. of National Defence/DPGA Photo Editing; 503 CP Picture Archive (Michel Lipchitz); **507** (t) CP Picture Archive (Amel Emric), (b) CP Picture Archive; 508 McKenna/Canada Wide/Toronto Sun Syndicate; 510 CP Picture Archive (Jose Goitia); 511 CP Picture Archive (Nick Procaylo); 514 CP Picture Archive (Tom Hanson); 515 CP Picture Archive (Andrew Wallace); 516 Vancouver Sun/Chris Helgren; **518** Stone/David Young-Wolff; **520** Canadian Space Agency; **521** Canadian Space Agency

Text Sources

42 Henri Bourassa quoted in Douglas Francis, Richard Jones, and Donald B. Smith, Destinies: Canadian History Since Confederation (Toronto: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1988), p.190; 64 Quoted in Daphne Read (ed.), The Great War and Canadian Society: An Oral History (Toronto: New Hogtown Press, 1978), p. 90; 73 Quoted in W.D. Mathieson, My Grandfather's War (Toronto: Macmillan, 1981)/Quoted in Daphne Read (ed.), The Great War and Canadian Society: An Oral History (Toronto: New Hogtown Press, 1978), p. 100; 82 From Larry Worthington, Amid the Guns Below: The Story of the Canadian Corps, 1914-1919 (Toronto: McClelland & Stewart, 1965), p. 5; 85 Gregory Clark quoted in W.D. Mathieson, My Grandfather's War (Toronto: Macmillan, 1981), p. 53/Richard Musman, The First World War (London, Chatto & Windus, 1968), p. 32; 110 Quoted in Daphne Read (ed.), The Great War and Canadian Society: An Oral History (Toronto: New Hogtown Press, 1978), pp. 196-197; **115, 115-116** Quoted in Daphne Read (ed.), *The* Great War and Canadian Society: An Oral History (Toronto: New Hogtown Press, 1978), pp. 158, 163, 185; 120 Quoted in Desmond Morton, A Military History of Canada (Edmonton: Hurtig, 1985), p. 145; 121 Quoted in Daphne Read (ed.), The Great War and Canadian Society: An Oral History (Toronto: New Hogtown Press, 1978), p. 108; 125 Ouoted in Donald M. Santor, Canadians at War, 1914-1918 (Scarborough: Prentice-Hall, 1978), p. 47; 129 Dale Zieroth 'Detention Camp, Brandon, Manitoba.' Clearing: Poems From a Journey (Toronto: House of Anansi Press, 1973). Reprinted by permission of Stoddart Publishing Co. Limited; 134-135 From The Winnipeg General Strike, pp. 85-87 by D.C. Masters. Reprinted by permission of the University of Toronto Press. OUniversity of Toronto Press 1973; 148 James H. Gray, The Winter Years: The Depression on the Prairies (Toronto: Macmillan, 1966), p. 178; 160 Foster Hewitt, Down the Ice: Hockey Contacts and Reflections, S. R. Reginald Saunders; 161 R.H. Hahn cited in The Birth of Radio in Canada: Signing On by Bill McNeil and Morris Wolfe, Doubleday Canada Limited; 179 Reprinted from Ten Lost Years by Barry Broadfoot, Doubleday, 1973; 179-180 Quoted in Mark Kingwell and Christopher Moore, Canada Our Century, Doubleday Canada, 1999: 192-193 Reprinted from Ten Lost Years by Barry Broadfoot, Doubleday, 1973; 193 Quote from Ike Hill in Beth Brant, I'll Sing 'til the Day I Die (McGilligan Books, 1995); 194-195 From The Wretched in Canada: Letters to R.B. Bennett, 1976; 212-213 Reprinted from The Diary of Anne Frank by permission of Vallentine Mitchell Publishers; 234 Reprinted from Six War Years by Barry Broadfoot, Doubleday, 1974/Corvette illustration reproduced courtesy of DND (Department of National Defence): 235-236 Reprinted from Six War Years by Barry Broadfoot, Doubleday, 1974; 237 From "The War Generation," Maclean's, April 3, 1995; 238-239 John Giblin, Flight Engineer, quoted in The Toronto Star, November 7, 1999; 240 German soldier quoted in an article by Rosie DiManno, The Toronto Star, December 26, 1998; 241-242 John Finn, Forward observation operator, quoted in *Maclean's*, 1994: 255, 266-267 Reprinted from Six War Years by Barry Broadfoot, Doubleday, 1974; 269-270, 270 Reprinted from Years of Sorrow, Years of Shame by Barry Broadfoot, Doubleday, 1977; 271-272 Joy Kogawa "What Do I Remember of the Evacuation?" from A Choice of Dreams (McClelland & Stewart, 1974). Reprinted by permission of the author; 305 From Peter Stursberg, Diefenbaker: Leadership Lost, 1962-67 (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1976), pp. 14-15; 310 From The

War Brides by Joyce Hibbert. Reprinted by permission of Stoddart Publishing Co. Ltd., Don Mills, Ontario; 372 Quotes from John Fitzgerald, "It's love of his 'pays' that drives Vigneault," The Montreal Gazette, Sept. 4, 1982, D1; 373 "Mon Pays" by Gilles Vigneault from Tenir Paroles, Volume 1, Nouvelles Editions de L'Arc (1983); 381 Table, Top Ten Source Countries for Immigrants to Canada, 1968-1994' adapted from Multi-Ethnic Canada: Identities and Inequalities by Leo Driedger. ©Copyright Oxford University Press Canada 1996. Reprinted by permission; 386 Table 'Domestic Share by Origin of Content' from Mass Communication in Canada by Rowland M. Lorimer and Jean McNulty (Toronto: McClelland & Stewart, 1987). Copyright ©1987 by Rowland M. Lorimer and Jean McNulty Reprinted by permission; 393 'O Canada' from Symbols of Canada (Ottawa: Department of Canadian Heritage, 1995). Reproduced with the permission of the Minister of Public Works and Government Services Canada, 2000; 401 Graph, 'World Oil Prices, 1945-86' from Challenge for Change: Geographical Approaches to Selected World Issues, Second Edition, by Margaret Fagan and Marilyn Andrews (Whitby, ON: McGraw-Hill Ryerson, 1990, and Energy, Mines and Resources Canada). Reprinted by permission; 405, 406 From Report of the Royal Commission on the Status of Women in Canada (Canada: Royal Commission on the Status of Women in Canada, 1970) by John Humphrey, Florence Bird, and Jacques Henripin; 416 Quotes from Northern Frontier, Northern Homeland: The Report of the Mackenzie Valley Pipeline Inquiry by Thomas Berger (Ottawa: Minister of Supply and Services, 1977), pp. 1, 36, 94; 419 Table 'Immigrant Population by Place of Birth, 1970-1995' from Canadian Oxford School Atlas, 7th Edition, by Quentin Stanford. Copyright ©Oxford University Press Canada 1998 Reprinted by permission; 438 Quotations from "Mountie Mouse: 'Competent' Disney beats Canadian firms for exclusive rights to sell RCMP souvenirs" The Halifax Daily News, June 29, 1995, p. 16 and "Disney Wins Marketing Rights to the Mounties" Canada AM interview with Bill Pratt, CTV, June 29, 1995; 458 From "Her Excellency the Right Honourable Adrienne Clarkson, Governor General of Canada, Installation Speech," The Senate, October 7, 1999 from www.gg.ca/speeches/installation-speech_e.html; 460 Quote from DeborahCoxOnline.com:News "Life in the Fast Lane with Deborah Cox" by Andrew Flynn, Canadian Press, November 26, 1998; 469 Graph from Time, Canadian edition, 28 June 1999. ©1999 Time Inc. Reprinted by permission; 471 Graph, 'Brain Drain' from The Toronto Star, 17 August 1999. Reprinted with permission -The Toronto Star Syndicate; 489 Quotes from "Canada gives 'chance at life'" by Jeff Pappone, Algonquin Times staff; 496 Buffy Sainte-Marie, excerpt from "CyberSkins: Live and Interactive," Cradleboard Teaching Project, 1997; 497 From Jerry White and Ken Rutherford "The Role of the Landmine Survivors Network" in Maxwell A. Cameron, Robert J. Lawson, and Brian W. Tomlin (eds.) To Walk Without Fear: The Global Movement to Ban Landmines (Toronto: Oxford University Press, 1998), pp. 102, 100; 518 Hobbes' Internet Timeline Copyright ©1993-9 by Robert H. Zakon (www.isoc.org/zakon/Internet/History/HIT.html)

Every reasonable effort has been made to trace the original source of text material and photographs contained in this book. Where the attempt has been unsuccessful, the publisher would be pleased to hear from copyright holders to rectify any omissions.

Features List (Alphabetical)

Susan Aglukark	492	Tom Longboat	21
Billy Bishop	96	Beverley McLachlin	491
Joseph-Armand Bombardier	165	Nellie McClung	117
Robert Borden	120	Marshall McLuhan	338
Don and Gerry Carty	236	Beverly Mascoll	492
Adrienne Clarkson	458	Emily Murphy	173
Deborah Cox	460	James Naismith	46
John Diefenbaker	350	Lester Pearson	351
Ujjal Dosanjh	477	Tommy Prince	236
Mendel Good	489	Louis Slotin	244
Mel Hurtig	399	Frank Stronach	340
K.C. Irving	340	Georges and Pauline Vanier	
David See-Chai Lam	516	-	
ArtsTalk			
Aboriginal Artists: Norval Morrisseau		The Group of Seven	151
and Pitseolak Ashoona	321	Joy Kogawa: "What Do I Remember	
Margaret Atwood and Alice Munro	388	of the Evacuation?"	27
Canadian War Art	93	L.M. Montgomery and Stephen	
Cirque du Soleil	444	Leacock	19
The Technological Edge			
Canadarm	425	Marquis Wheat—"Discovery of the	
Canadian Astronauts	520	Century"	
The Discovery of Insulin	137	Submarines, Machine Guns,	
lmax Films	326	and Airplanes	98
Inventions and War	242		
Impact on Society			
Canada and Fascism	218	The Inuit Broadcasting Corporation	427
Is Canadian Culture on the		Letters from the Depression	194
Bargaining Table?	512	Patriotism and Prejudice	
The Creation of Nunavut	486	(World War I)	75
The Debate Over Nuclear Warheads	293	Posters in World War I	114
An Honoux Dolo of Nov. Comadiana	310	The Seeds of Ethnic Diversity	24
An Honour Role of New Canadians	310	The Beeds of Editile Diversity	4